

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LVIII

\*

APRIL 1950

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Number 4

## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### MAN AND SUPERMAN

MANY teachers will be interested in the experience of N. Dean Evans, head of the English Department in James Monroe High School, Fredericksburg, Virginia. While making a travel-study tour of England in connection with work on his doctorate, Mr. Evans braved the Shavian lightnings and survived to submit the following account:

As a teacher of English and an amateur photographer, I harbored a strong desire to bring home some pictures of the little town of Ayot St. Lawrence, home of Mr. George Bernard Shaw, which nestles in the English countryside about thirty miles north of London. And so it was not strange that I found myself in a hired cab one July afternoon, heading out toward the little Hertfordshire village. Because of Mr. Shaw's inaccessibility, the thought of attempting to see him never entered my mind. However, on the insistent urging of the cab driver, I decided to give it a try.

At about 1 P.M. we pulled up in front of a two-story brick house, surrounded by a well-kept lawn. The green iron gates at the entrance bore the inscription "Shaw's Corner."

With a certain amount of trepidation I walked up the gravel path to the front door and rang the bell. While waiting what seemed an eternity, I noticed that the brass door knocker was inscribed "G. B. Shaw, Man and Superman." In due course a middle-aged lady, whom I mentally identified as Mr. Shaw's housekeeper, answered my ring. I introduced myself as an American teacher who would like to say "Hello" to Mr. Shaw. I was informed that there might be some hope if I returned at 4 P.M.

It was not difficult to spend three hours in Ayot St. Lawrence, taking pictures and enjoying this typical little English village. Promptly at four I returned to "Shaw's Corner," and the housekeeper told me she'd see what she could do. I was ushered into a bright sitting-room, overlooking the spacious lawn. Among other furnishings in the room were several busts of Shaw, a Hollywood Academy Award "Oscar," and a small statue of Shakespeare.

In a few moments the door opened slowly, and the ninety-three-year-old playwright entered, hand extended. I rose, and we shook hands. It was a moment of mixed emotions for a young teacher of English. There before me was one of the great literary figures of the century. With sparkling eyes and snow-white beard, he was the Shaw I had pictured,

clad in his famous tweed knickers and leather sandals. He put me completely at ease by indicating a seat and by asking what he could do for me. I told him that I was an American teacher who had just dropped by to say "Hello." I told him further that I was visiting English secondary schools in connection with a project for my Doctor's degree. He showed an immediate interest and asked if English schools seemed similar to American schools. I replied that they were in many respects; that, from my observation, academic and intellectual attainments seemed to be stressed more in England than in America. I explained that American educational philosophy placed more emphasis on social development of the child.

Mr. Shaw then stated that he believes visual education in the form of motion pictures is valuable. However, he does not believe in firing questions at the children after they have seen a film. He thinks that motion pictures should be used mainly for appreciation of values.

He rules the question-recitation method out of teaching. He believes that, after the three R's are taught, the curriculum should be adapted to the students' interests. Classes should be something pupils can enjoy, according to Mr. Shaw. He believes that students, not the teacher, should ask the questions.

In regard to sex education he told me that he thinks parents should handle it at an early age when children begin to ask questions. At the onset of adolescence, however, he believes that neither the parents nor the regular classroom teacher should cope with the problem. He feels that the close pupil relationship with parents and teachers will inhibit them as far as sex discussion is concerned. Mr. Shaw holds that special visiting teachers should go from school to school and present the material. Then students would feel more free about asking questions and raising problems. I then explained the new system of sex education by motion pictures which has been tried in Oregon, stating that it was a comparatively new approach.

He remarked that the radio has done much to make the world smaller and that it has contributed to mass education. When Mr. Shaw came to Ayot St. Lawrence some forty years ago, almost no one had been over five miles away from the village. One gentleman who had been to London was considered a great traveler. Shaw believes that the radio has done much to bring the world and its affairs into hamlets such as his.

As a teacher, I expressed interest in his famous statement, "He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches." And I asked him to explain it. He said that a man who is "going" all the time does not really have time to teach. Furthermore, he said, all are not competent as teachers, and, pointing to me, "For example, I could not teach you to write plays."

After about a half-hour of conversation, Mr. Shaw indicated that he felt compelled to return to his work. As I was leaving, I asked permission to take several pictures. Mr. Shaw was most gracious, posing for both movies and stills. His attitude throughout our meeting was one of keen interest in the topics under discussion. After the picture-taking, I told him that it had been a pleasure to meet him; we shook hands and said "Goodbye."

Mr. Shaw's secretary, leaning from the upstairs window, smiled and said, "You're a mighty lucky young man." And I knew it. Yet somehow I was filled with the impression that this great man enjoyed meeting someone who was nobody for a change—an American school teacher who now closed the gate at "Shaw's Corner" and walked slowly through the little village.

#### TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

**A**DMINISTRATORS and prospective teachers particularly, but also those currently teaching in elementary and secondary schools, will be interested in Bulletin 972 in the Occupational Outlook Series, "Employment

Outlook for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers," issued co-operatively by the United States Department of Labor and the Veterans Administration (sold by the Government Printing Office at \$0.35). That there has been and is now a shortage of elementary-school teachers is well known. Almost as well known is the fact that there is a surplus in most departments of secondary-school teaching. But when one reads the country-wide description appearing at the beginning of this pamphlet and examines the graphs which dramatize the present figures and the estimated future supply and demand, the full import of the national situation begins to be manifest. Not only was there at the elementary-school level a shortage so great that the demand was three times the supply in 1949, but "the total number of teachers needed for grades below the high-school level will continue to mount until the late 1950's, owing to increasing elementary-school enrolments resulting from the abrupt rise in the birth rate since 1940." On the other hand, how dismal is the prospect for most of those aspiring to teach at the secondary-school level, where the supply in 1949 was four times the demand:

In most states, an oversupply of high-school teachers in many subject fields is developing and may well continue for at least a few years. The number of students completing training for high-school teaching in 1949 has been estimated at nearly 56,000—a higher number of such graduates than were produced in any previous year and over twice the number of students completing preparation for elementary work in 1949. The sup-

ply of secondary teachers exceeds the annual demand anticipated during the next few years by at least 40,000. Of course many of these graduates will not seek teaching positions. Moreover, the distribution both by locality and by subject field is such that some schools may suffer shortages while others have many applicants for each job. In general, shortages are most prevalent in rural areas. Among the subject fields in which widespread shortages of personnel were expected to continue at least during 1949-50, and probably longer, were home economics, commercial work, and industrial arts. The greatest oversupply of teachers appears to be in the social sciences, men's physical education, and English.

One obvious solution to this problem is that many high-school teachers will have to be retrained for elementary-school teaching if they wish to remain in the profession, and, by the same token, many of those currently training for secondary-school teaching will, if they wish to enter the profession, have to retrain for elementary work. From about 1957, such of these teachers as desire it very likely may have the opportunity to teach in secondary schools since the demand then will be great and will continue to be great through the early sixties. It is expected by the authors of this bulletin that the trend toward single salary scales may by that time tend to preserve a better balance between the levels. It is pointed out that "more than 9 out of every 10 cities with over 100,000 population now have single-salary schedules, but this type of schedule is still rare in small towns and rural schools." The estimated average salary in 1948-49 of all instructional staff, including classroom teachers,

principals, and supervisors in the public school system was \$2,750.

This bulletin provides not only a general view of teacher employment but a discussion, under each state, of the number of teachers and enrolments, the certification requirements for that state, the outlook for the future, and the earnings. On looking through the figures for the several states, one finds the particular evidence which bears out the national forecast. In only three states—Georgia, Idaho, and Louisiana—is there any expectation of continually increasing demand for high-school teachers. In two of these the explanation for the variation from the norm is the change from an eleven-year to a twelve-year school system. There seems little doubt that the oversupply of high-school teachers in the other states will quickly fill the demand in these three, since they are states which employ relatively few teachers as contrasted with the enormous numbers (and enormous surpluses) in such states as New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois.

#### APOLOGIA FOR TEXTBOOKS

THE American Textbook Publishers Institute (1 Madison Avenue, New York City) has published a volume, *Textbooks in Education*, apparently designed to further the first of the aims listed as objectives of the Institute: to "promote better understanding by the public of the place and the need of the textbook in American Education." Engagingly written, the

work explains a good many things about textbooks which some of us may wonder about from time to time: the size and character of the textbook industry, the methods used in producing a textbook, and the manner of their selection in various regions. The volume includes a very good section on the proper way to choose a textbook and an interesting though brief sketch of the history of the textbook in America.

While writing of these matters, the authors incidentally but constantly make a case for the textbook as a tool indispensable to teaching and for writers and publishers of textbooks as high-minded and altruistic gentlemen whose compensation for small earnings is their sense of satisfaction in promoting the welfare of the schools. We who are deluged by broadsides and circulars on textbooks are informed that advertising departments get out such material, to be sure, but their primary function is rather that of providing "carefully documented and painstakingly tested research service bulletins in every subject in the curriculum." All in all, an entertaining volume.

#### BOOK REPORTS

SOME teachers of English will shudder at the notice of publication of a new collection of story summaries, *Masterplots*, edited by Frank N. Magill (Salem Press, 475 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, New York). Teachers who resent such collections hold that they make all too easy the completion



of book reports without a reading of the work. It is urged that summaries should never be published in the first place but that, if published, they should be kept in the school or public library on an "adults-only" shelf so that pupils may not have access to them. Such an attitude is understandable but scarcely consistent with the purpose of libraries or, indeed, with the educational aim of providing all available material for those who want information. It is but a step, although perhaps a long one, from the practice of hiding books to the practice of burning them.

This collection is notable for including all kinds of works—poems and plays as well as novels—and for being, so far as can be told from a cursory examination, carefully done. "Plot" is interpreted by the writers as the sequence of events in the work; this sequence is narrated with a high degree of accuracy in terms of the compression required to incorporate over 500 stories into fewer than 1,200 pages.

It seems to this editorial writer that, when such collections are successfully used by students to obviate the purpose of book reports, the book report is not worth doing in the first place. Students do not need help in learning to describe what happened in a literary work but in learning to appreciate why these things happened, why they happened in this order, what the intended effect is, how not only the events narrated but the thought and diction and creation of character work together to achieve the effect or fail to

work together and achieve a disparate effect.

An indication of the difference between what appears in such collections of summaries and what the English teacher might be doing may be obtained by comparing the description of *Tom Jones* in *Masterplots* with R. S. Crane's analysis of the same work in the *Journal of General Education* for January. The concept of "plot" set forth by Crane, professor of English at the University of Chicago, although not essentially difficult to understand, is unfortunately rare; it may even be called revolutionary. One of his points, for example, is that plot cannot be considered fully apart from our emotional involvement in it:

... for some of the characters we wish good, for others ill, and, depending on our inferences as to the events, we feel hope or fear, pity or satisfaction, or some modification of these or similar emotions. The peculiar power of any plot of this kind, as it unfolds, is a result of our state of knowledge at any point in complex interaction with our desires for the characters as morally differentiated beings; and we may be said to have grasped the plot in the full artistic sense only when we have analyzed this interplay of desires and expectations sequentially in relation to the incidents by which it is produced.

If the teacher of English attempted to adapt the mode of analysis illustrated by Professor Crane to the works studied and to the abilities of the students encountered in the secondary school, he would not concern himself long with whether the student had read a résumé of its "plot." This illustration is used merely because it is convenient

and timely, not because *Tom Jones* is a novel likely to be assigned for classroom study or for outside reading in most secondary schools. The point to be made here is that, unless the book report (or, needless to say, classroom discussion) goes beyond a summary of the sequence of events, it is largely wasted effort.

For years, thoughtful teachers and administrators have been inveighing against the typical book report. Many have suggested variations and alterations which, if followed, would increase both the student's interest in good literature and his ability to read it. In no such suggestion that I have seen would reference to a work like *Masterplots* interfere with the presentation of the student's own report. A teacher might even assign to the student a summary such as is found in this collection and get him in his report to show some of the things that are left out which make the book come alive, since almost everything that does make the book a living thing must inevitably be left out of a summary of its events.

#### TEACHING AND TESTING

A FIELD of knowledge about which most of us know too little is that of measurement and evaluation. What we learn theoretically in our professional training is often too little or apparently too abstract for adequate transfer into teaching situations. Many of us teach and test for years, vaguely realizing that something is wrong, but, because of the pressure of

other duties or lack of a good, readable textbook conveniently at hand, we do little to remedy the situation. Eventually, we work out laboriously for ourselves some of the attitudes toward evaluation and some of the devices of successful testing which were always accessible. A number of these attitudes and skills are briefly reviewed in an article, "Improvement of Evaluation of Achievement in High Schools," by Max D. Engelhart appearing in the *High School Journal* for January-February.

Mr. Engelhart emphasizes first that improvement in evaluation and improvement in instruction go hand in hand. When all that is taught is the content of a textbook or a course of study, there is no point in devising refinements in testing techniques to measure such changes in behavior as increased critical thinking or heightened taste or different ideals or greater ability to apply theory to new situations. Mr. Engelhart makes the point very simply:

Suppose, for example, that one of the objectives defined is the ability to interpret observational or experimental data. . . . Instruments are available or can be locally constructed to evaluate the attainment of this ability. How can one justify the use of such an instrument, however, unless some effort has been made in instruction to train students to interpret data?

With respect to the essay test, the author deplors the fact that it is often used for the wrong purposes: to measure recall of facts or mechanical aptitudes which can be measured more

quickly and more exactly by objective tests. Essay questions in content fields should call for analysis and criticism:

The questions should require a student to apply his knowledge to novel problematic situations. For example, students who have learned in social studies something concerning the characteristics of culture lag and of the operation of vested interests might be asked to "Compare the possible consequences of the introduction of atomic energy in industry with the consequences which resulted from the introduction of steam as a source of power." It is to be hoped that, while previous instruction has dealt with the industrial revolution, culture lag, and the matter of vested interests, no attempt has been made by the teacher to predict what will occur as atomic energy is introduced as a source of power.

It has long been known that students' preparation is determined by how they will be tested. As long ago as 1934 Douglass and Tallmadge<sup>1</sup> showed that, if pupils expect to have objective tests, they stress detail and exactness of verbal statements in their study; whereas if they expect the essay type of test, they try to perceive larger relationships, to organize their ideas, and to develop significant personal reactions. Teachers, in their construction of essay questions, should try to take advantage of this difference and of course should try, in their instruction, to teach with these larger objectives in mind.

It is with respect to the objective test, however, that Mr. Engelhart is

<sup>1</sup> Harl R. Douglass and Margaret Tallmadge, "How University Students Prepare for New Types of Examinations," *School and Society*, XXXIX (March 10, 1934), 318-20.

most useful to the working teacher in reviewing forgotten techniques or introducing concepts and methods with which the teacher may be entirely unfamiliar. In presenting a series of practical examples of what to do and what to avoid in the construction of true-false tests, matching tests, multiple-choice, and "category" tests, this article provides valuable directions and warnings to the teacher of any subject.

Objective exercises, says the author, "need not be restricted in function to the measurement of memory of information," and he gives examples where discriminative thinking must be employed by the student in selecting the correct answers. I have heard examiners go further than Mr. Engelhart to maintain that the essay system can measure nothing, except the art of writing itself, which cannot also be measured by a machine-scored objective test. And a few examiners do indeed come close to achieving the kind of competence required to make the objective test such a powerful tool. Most of us, however, have neither the aptitude nor the training to construct objective exercises so skilfully.

One thorny problem which Mr. Engelhart does not discuss, and which he had no particular reason for discussing in a general article, is that of testing literary appreciation. Dean Ralph W. Tyler, of the Division of the Social Sciences and examiner of the University of Chicago, has often remarked that adequate tests can always be devised if those in the subject fields can define what they teach and

what they want tested. Just here, teachers of literature find themselves in difficulty. It is hard to define appreciation, and it is hard to say what the teacher does when he gets students to appreciate literary works. Acting on the theory that, if the work is understood, it will be appreciated, many teachers rely, finally, on understanding as an index of appreciation. One can make at least a negative case for this view. Paul Diederich, writing in these columns in the January, 1949, *School Review*, mentions some armed-forces tests he devised in reading and writing. These were tried out in representative high schools and colleges in various sections of the country. Mr. Diederich comments:

The item analyses of these tests left good grounds for the suspicion that the reason why students almost never read anything describable as literature is not, primarily, lack of interest but lack of ability to comprehend. No one would read a book that meant such utter nonsense as the students said it meant.

The studies of Abbott and Trabue<sup>2</sup> and of Broening<sup>3</sup> indicate that another way of both testing and teaching appreciation is by the use of "spoiled" versions, presented in conjunction with the original. I have never known anyone to try this meth-

od who has not thought it rewarding. Its difficulty is that it can be employed for only short works or for parts of larger works. A different suggestion, put forward by Professor A. M. Buchan, of Washington University, in *College English* for May, 1948, is an unabashed return to detailed questions. Mr. Buchan's theory is that appreciation may be deduced from (1) interest, which stimulates recall of details; (2) generalizations about effects, which can only be supported by details; and (3) comprehension, which demands careful scrutiny of details. Many teachers will feel that Mr. Buchan is assuming a relationship between details and emotional response which seldom exists in the mind of the student. Paul E. Reynolds, of Rhode Island State College, answering Mr. Buchan in the April, 1949, issue of *College English*, makes just this point: "The testing of details is just what the phrase implies—a testing of details and nothing more."

The whole question of "appreciation" goes back to the theory of artistic values held by the particular teacher. So long as there are different schools of literary criticism to which different teachers, consciously or unconsciously, subscribe, there will be different teaching of, and different testing for, "appreciation." What the individual teacher can do, however, is formulate in his own mind what his own literary values are. Unless he takes this first step, he can never do completely satisfactory teaching or completely satisfactory testing.

<sup>2</sup> Allan Abbott and M. R. Trabue, "A Measure of Ability To Judge Poetry," *Teachers College Record*, XXII (March, 1921), 101-26.

<sup>3</sup> Angela M. Broening, *Developing Appreciation through Teaching Literature*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 13. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1929.

## MOTION PICTURES AND THE SCHOOL

THE Motion Picture Association of America is currently calling attention to the fact that it is revising and enlarging its mailing list for the free services available to teachers. One such service is the bulletin called "Joint Estimates of Current Motion Pictures," published every two weeks and embodying preview opinions by the motion-picture chairmen of such diverse national organizations as the American Association of University Women, the American Legion Auxiliary, and the National Society of Daughters of the American Revolution, to name only a few.

Each review includes production details, an indication of the content of the story, and an estimate of the film's worth, based on moral and social implications and, to some extent, on the artistic quality of the film. In addition, a notation appears judging the movie according to its suitability for different audience groups: "adults," "family," "young people," and "children." Child-audience reactions (the "wobble test") are included for appropriate films.

Those who have kept up with educational literature on the cinema know that teachers, particularly teachers of English, have for some time been urged to do more with this art form, as a cultural medium of our times—and one perhaps more exciting to students than any other. Although the form at present may represent a low level of culture, that situation reflects rather a criticism of our society than of the

form. The plays of Elizabeth's day were also designed for all levels of society, and at least one of the playwrights achieved a certain stature. Those who advocate increased study of current films in the schools urge that it is up to the schools to teach appreciation of the good and, by so doing, to help raise the level of taste to a place where more good films are demanded—where a potential Shakespeare has an opportunity to work and breathe freely. A listing such as appears in the "Joint Estimates" should be of great aid in helping the teacher select pictures for class discussion.

Another service by the Motion Picture Association is a list, published every two months, of "Recent and Forthcoming Motion Pictures Based on Books and Plays." Such a list might be of great help in the teaching of a particular literary work. Although a few students may substitute seeing the picture for reading the work, those are the students who would not read it in the first place. And the contrary phenomenon is much more common: librarians have noted increased withdrawals, not only of books from which currently-showing pictures are made, but of other books by the same author. To take full advantage of the service, teachers could revise the order of works read in a term or change the selection of novels or plays to make the reading of the work coincide with the local appearance of the motion picture.

It should be noted that the cinematic production need not be a top-level



one to enhance the teaching of the literary work. When changes in the text are for the worse, the virtues of the original stand out more clearly. A striking instance may be recalled in the wrenching of the character of Lady Catherine de Bourgh in *Pride and Prejudice*, with the consequent demoralization of the denouement. Such a change provides a wonderful opportunity to show the perfection of Jane Austen's novel. On the other hand, some changes in a picture version are justified in terms of differences in the medium or even as improvements over the original. Whatever the quality of a picture, the study of the two forms together provides innumerable opportunities for stimulating and valuable teaching.

Closely related to the list of pictures based on books and plays is another service: the publication and distribution of descriptive booklets on specific pictures, such as *Hamlet*, *The Secret Garden*, and *A Connecticut Yankee*. These are attractively designed and written, telling the story of the photoplay with pictures from it and also containing information about the production, about the author (including a selective bibliography), about the history of the dramatization of the book, and in some cases questions for classroom discussion. The brochure on *A Connecticut Yankee* even prints Caxton's Preface to *Le Morte d'Arthur*, which seems a far cry from Bing Crosby.

Readers will not always agree, of course, with the remarks about the

picture. In the brochure on *Hamlet*, for example, Max J. Herzberg maintains that Olivier "makes magical use of all the special opportunities that the art of the photoplay affords. Through these opportunities he gives a sense of swiftness and reality that many (if not all) stage versions lack." My own opinion is that the overuse of the camera to take the audience up and down the walls and battlements of Elsinore is fatiguing and certainly does not contribute to swiftness of movement. Somewhat less picturesque roaming on the part of the cameraman and more of the soliloquies which help to make clear the conflict in the play would have been welcome. However, such statements as Herzberg's serve as excellent starting points for discussion.

All three of these services are available to teachers and librarians upon application to the Community Relations Department, Motion Picture Association of America, Inc., 28 West Forty-fourth Street, New York 18, New York. The same association makes available (through Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West Forty-third Street, New York 18) material on forty-minute versions of commercial films. These modified versions are cut particularly for classroom use. On the list one finds such titles as *Les Misérables*, *Anna Karenina*, five novels by Dickens, *Treasure Island*, and *Romeo and Juliet*. The productions of these and many other producers of both photoplays and filmstrips are listed, with brief comment, in "Mo-

tion Pictures and Filmstrips for English," by Mrs. Rita J. Kenny and Edward T. Schofield, in the *English Journal* for February.

#### READING AND PERSONALITY

THE argument for reading as "preventive bibliotherapy" is ably defended by John J. De Boer in "Literature and Human Behavior," appearing in the February issue of the *English Journal*. The end of instruction in such readings is to help students solve their personal problems, a number of which are listed by De Boer, professor of education at the University of Illinois. For the teacher who is concerned with the development and guidance of the child, the proper method, according to Professor De Boer, is as follows:

Instead of beginning with the literary selection, or the literary type, and adapting it to the needs of a group or an individual, the teacher in the modern secondary school begins with the needs, as he understands them, and finds the selections which may help to fill the needs.

Such a method will very probably contribute to the proper growth of the individual, may help prevent the development of various quirks whether of character or manners, and may even tend to cure neuroses. But because of the notion held by many teachers of English, to whom this article is particularly addressed, that they should inculcate a love for literature and some discernment about reading, there may be qualms about Professor De Boer's view. One of the problems of twelfth-grade students on

the list Mr. De Boer cites, for example, is that of "how to dance." If a student is assigned a book which helps him solve this problem, there is no reason to believe that he will ever read independently any other book or to suspect that he may have acquired any criteria for judging literature, except possibly the dubious criterion that books about dancing are good. There is no reason, indeed, why he should even read the assigned book again, since he has derived from it everything he wanted.

For those who believe in concentrating on the student's immediate problems to the exclusion of all else, the only important thing is that he has been helped to a solution of his immediate problem. Mr. De Boer, it should be noted, is not of this group. He makes clear at the beginning that these "modifications of personality" are ends "in addition to the development of pleasure, appreciation, and discernment in the reading of worthy literature." Those who have read his other statements, such as his article in the *School Review* for January, 1949, on "Cultivating Powers of Discrimination in Reading," will not accuse him of oversimplifying the problem of ends in the teaching of literature. The question of emphasis, however, remains. Since the objective of developing the "insights, attitudes, and predispositions necessary for mental health and a civilized society" is not peculiar to any one department in the school, many teachers of literature may feel that the method advocated

by Mr. De Boer and those whom he cites is suited pre-eminently to the teachers of social sciences, and that the contribution of the English teacher may be more significant if he adopts an approach which takes greater account of the inherent rather than the accidental value of the work read.

A clear understanding of his primary function is one that every teacher of reading at any level must be sure of if he is to find his teaching rewarding. This question of the relation of reading to personality development is one of seven pertinent to that understanding which will be posed and to which answers will be sought in the Annual Reading Conference to be held this summer at the University of Chicago, as is indicated by the program which follows.

#### ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON READING

**T**HE Thirteenth Annual Conference on Reading at the University of Chicago will be held on June 27-30, inclusive. The central theme of the conference will be "Keeping Reading Programs Abreast of the Times."

The first half-day session will define the purpose and scope of the conference and outline the many challenging problems that will be considered during the week. This session will be addressed by Dora V. Smith, University of Minnesota, William S. Gray, University of Chicago, and Earle W. Wiltse, superintendent of schools at Grand Island, Nebraska. General sessions each half-day will review recent developments in the following areas

and their implications for the improvement of teaching:

"Recent Changes in the Concept of What Schooling Should Do for Children and Youth," HEROLD C. HUNT, General Superintendent of Schools, Chicago

"The Increasing Use of Agencies of Mass Communication and Aids to Learning Other than Reading," WALTER A. WITTECK, Director of Audio-visual Education, University of Wisconsin

"The Influence of Community Factors on Attitudes toward, and Progress in, Reading," HENRY MAAS, Committee on Human Development, University of Chicago

"Factors in the School and Classroom Environment That Promote Progress in Reading," MARTHA KING, Supervisor, Franklin County, Ohio

"Personal Characteristics That Retard Progress in Reading," CONSTANCE McCULLOUGH, San Francisco State College

"The Role of Group Instruction and Provision for Individual Needs in Promoting Pupil Development," EVELYN THOMPSON, University of Houston

"The Relation of Reading to Personality Development," PAUL WITTY, Northwestern University

The general sessions will be followed by sectional meetings in which well-known authorities will consider ways of improving reading in harmony with recent developments in the foregoing areas. Attention is directed to the fact that separate sections will be provided this year for teachers of Grades VII-X and of Grades XI-XIV.

On Tuesday evening, June 27, the National Broadcasting Company will present a "Carnival of Books" as broadcast by WMAQ. On Thursday evening the needs of the poor learner will be considered in a stimulating

program organized with the help of the National Association of Remedial Teachers. There will be exhibits of recent trade books, commercial textbooks, and remedial equipment.

The conference is open without charge to students registered at the University of Chicago. A fee of \$6.00 is charged to all others. Requests for details of the program, rooming facilities, etc., should be addressed to Professor William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago, by May 1.

#### CONFERENCE FOR TEACHERS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

**H**AVE the Social Studies Failed?" is the thought-provoking topic to be discussed at the Tenth Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior

Colleges. For the convenience of those whose vacation plans make a mid-summer date inconvenient, the conference will be held July 5, 6, and 7, 1950, several weeks earlier than in past years.

In papers, discussions, and panels, an attempt will be made to assess the task of the social studies, with emphasis on rigorous methods of thought and inquiry as well as on the values of the democratic conception.

There is no admission fee. All teachers of the social studies, curriculum directors and supervisors, and school administrators are cordially invited to attend. Further information about the program may be obtained by writing Earl S. Johnson, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

S. STEWART GORDON

## WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by S. STEWART GORDON, assistant professor of education and English at the University of Chicago. ALEXANDER FRAZIER, curriculum consultant at Phoenix Union High Schools and Phoenix College, Phoenix, Arizona, suggests what the junior college may learn from the high school in respect to general education. ALICE R. BROOKS, formerly an instructor in library science and librarian of the Center for Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago, urges that books and reading for young people be integrated with the developmental tasks of adolescents. WARREN W. COXE, director of educational research in the New York State Education Department, Albany, New York, considers the opportunities that the high school has to prepare its students realistically for meeting their future problems. PAUL B. DIEDERICH, associate professor of English and examiner in the College of the Univer-

sity of Chicago, at present on leave of absence for the purpose of doing research work at the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, describes the establishing, and points out the values, of an evaluation program. A list of selected references on the extra-curriculum is presented by PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama, and LORENCE STOUT, research assistant with the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, located at the University of Chicago.

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## GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE LESSONS FROM THE HIGH SCHOOL

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### PRESSURE FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

WITH the publication of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (15), the contention long since made by the junior-college field that public education should continue for much of our youth through Grade XIV seems to have become established as a matter of common consent. What perhaps has not been so well understood is that the concern of the public in this advanced education is based upon the fundamental social interest in the continued general education of American youth. The junior college now has squarely before it the problem of examining its own rather dramatic shortcomings in the area of general education and of doing something about them.

Even if it desired to escape responsibility for improving its general-education program, the junior college could hardly do so today. In addition to public concern, there are now also extreme pressures from both above and below the thirteenth and the fourteenth school years. The senior college has fully explored its responsibility in

general education. Even the most conservative of state universities will have dealt with the problem in its way. Courses in the humanities and surveys of the social studies and sciences have multiplied almost as rapidly as the textbooks for them. Where senior colleges have failed as yet to extend their general-education offerings to all students, they are at work on the challenge and would have a hard time of it to defend continued neglect of so clearly realized an obligation.

The pressure from below the junior college is growing with the conviction that, as mass education, the thirteenth and fourteenth years must be considered part of the secondary-school system. Planning the high-school program, then, can scarcely any longer proceed without concern for what is to follow the twelfth year. The patterns proposed by *Education for All American Youth* (5) clearly indicate the assumption of continued responsibility for general education in the upper reaches of the secondary-school system. Few indeed are the persons working jointly in public high schools and junior colleges who would

accept the thesis of Sexson and Harberson (25) that general education for the average student may well end at the close of the twelfth year.

#### EXAMINING THE PROGRAM

Thus the junior college is placed in a position where public concern, the pattern of the senior college, and the expectations of the high school demand that it face its obligation to provide an adequate program of general education. At the same time, there are real reasons—both historical and operational—why the public junior college has failed to meet this obligation. Caught between pressures toward, and deterrents from, establishing a program of general education, the junior college finds itself in a dilemma that requires thorough study. Perhaps a step toward solution of the problem would be to examine once again the reasons why junior colleges have neglected the building of an adequate program of this kind.

*Meeting the needs of all students.*—First of all, the junior college has held that its central function is to meet the needs of all students on their own terms. To begin at this time, then, the task of placing under the heterogeneity of junior-college students a foundation of common learnings may look more like an invitation to build a barrier against some than a challenge to meet the common needs of all. In states where the general-education movement has been sufficiently advanced, the junior college has already set up a program of equivalent courses

for its transfer students. The question in the minds of persons working in these junior colleges becomes that of how to require these courses of all their students. Can they—and still have all their students?

*Diversity of courses.*—A second deterrent to the provision of an adequate program of general education is that the junior college has devoted its most creative thinking to the development of diverse courses in terminal education. Here, indeed, has been the area that belonged to the new institution. Except for occasional encounters with institutions already in the field on an adult basis, the junior college has been free to proceed at its own pace. In fact, the trend in occupational fields and the growing concern of labor to hold youth from the job market, except in time of war, have made it almost mandatory that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling explore the field of technical and semi-professional training. Yet the very multiplication of terminal curriculums has brought with it a sharpening of the differences between such courses and those of general education.

Thus, the proposal to unite terminal and transfer students in courses that would meet common needs becomes perplexing in the extreme, causing Reynolds (23, 24) to list the problem first among those requiring solution in revising toward a broader program. The general-education courses now offered transfer students tend to ape the historical-literary surveys found in the state universities. The

one widely required general course for terminal students, other than physical education, tends to center in a limited technical or remedial core. Can the needs of terminal and transfer students be met in common?

*Increase in courses.*—Third, freed of an obligation to meet needs in common courses, the junior college has multiplied its course offerings many-fold for the students whose curriculums are essentially unplanned. In general the junior college is faced with the baffling problem of offering courses that its students need at a level considered by transfer institutions in their domain. Certain courses in home economics, psychology, sociology, and economics may be listed by the universities as upper-division studies; the junior college knows that many of its students want and need these courses and will not stay to get them later. The multiplication of courses offered as nontransferable is proportionate to the enormous increase in enrolment in the general curriculums of most of the larger public junior colleges.

Thus, this very prodigality of courses for what McGrath identifies correctly as one type of terminal education, "a program of general education designed to prepare students for effective adult life and intelligent citizenship" (19: 264), paradoxically becomes a barrier to the designing of a common program. Most of the general curriculums offered in the junior colleges remain largely elective. The wide variety of interests that the non-accredited courses can meet would

seem bound to be curtailed were more courses required. Hesitation to take such a step is easy to understand.

*Holding the student.*—Finally, a fourth block in the way of setting up general-education programs in the junior college arises, as has already been suggested, from the fear that these courses will force many students out of the learning environment altogether, either because of the difficulty of the subject matter or because of lack of interest in it. Obviously, the more requirements, the less freedom; and it has been by freedom of choice—the right to seek his own level of interest and achievement—that the junior college has historically been able to attract the student who formerly was thought to be poor material for higher education.

The example of the kind of courses often labeled "general education" has contributed to this fear. Inclined toward the encyclopedic, these courses have seemed suited to the transfer student only. What would happen, we have asked ourselves repeatedly, if we were to try to run all our students through these classes? Certainly, as now set up in many places, general-education courses could mean only failure for large numbers of students.

Even if we were able to organize the present material into kinds of courses in which individuals could be helped to succeed, is the material likely to interest all our students? Motivation, as Koos (17) makes clear, must be adequate for the average junior-college student in any program of general ed-

ucation that can succeed in keeping him through the fourteenth year.

There are, then, good reasons why the public junior college has failed to provide adequate programs in general education. The dilemma of meeting what is now expected of it and, at the same time, continuing to meet successfully the many needs of all its students will not be solved without hard work.

However, there are guides to a successful solution of this problem. These leads stem largely from the present tendency to regard the junior college as an extension of secondary, rather than as the beginning of higher, education. If the junior college will look to the experience of the American high school in developing its general-education program, it may be able to locate a sounder basis than by keeping its eye on the patterns of senior colleges. The senior colleges are still, in the main, serving a small fraction of the educable youth of the nation. The problems of the public junior college are much more closely allied to those of the high school.

#### LESSONS FROM THE HIGH SCHOOL

The high school has just gone through an experience almost identical with the one now facing the junior college. Within the memory of teachers still in service, the high-school population has changed from a small per cent of school-age youth to a vast majority of them. Hardly more than a generation ago, entrance into high

school not infrequently entailed passing an examination of fitness. The experience that has come with the revision of the high school's required courses to meet as nearly as possible the needs of all its students should possess meaning for those persons in the junior college who today are confronted with the same problem. The junior college faces acceleration of a task that took the high school thirty years and which, to be honest about it, is even now hardly completed.

What are some of the lessons that the junior college has to learn from the high school in facing up to its task of providing a tenable program of general education for the masses?

#### 1. *Sound curriculum development for a program of general education is built upon a knowledge of life-needs of learners.*

Sufficient data on the needs of both the individual and society now exist to provide a framework for developing or verifying these needs locally. The concept of developmental tasks as the problem areas in which youth must gain increasingly mature adjustments has been well developed (3, 13, 14). A definition of imperative needs of youth, first identified in *Education for All American Youth* (5) and since developed through other publications (8, 9), may provide a framework for looking at the present program. Stratemeyer and associates (27) have reported an exhaustive analysis of what they call "persistent life-situations"

and have attempted to make them concrete by expressing them in behavioral terms for various age levels, including the late adolescent and adult. An examination of the life-adjustment education movement (29) might also provide help in developing local insights.

Beginning with a study of life-needs as they are reflected in the literature and proceeding in terms of the group's understanding of youth, a faculty would then be ready to propose areas for major concern in the general-education program and also to provide a test of subsequent development in that program (20).

2. *Sound organization of learning experiences is based upon a topical or problem approach rather than on a chronological approach.*

Enough criticism has been directed at the nature of the organizing principles in the general-education courses of the senior college to make it hardly necessary to illustrate this basic consideration from anywhere else. In his attack on the rigid chronological ordering of the usual subject-matter survey because it places the emphasis on learning about rather than on experiencing, McConnell (18) urges a functional approach in terms of ideas, issues, or interests, with the essential stress on experiencing as learning.

After identifying other organizing principles, such as the Great Books approach, the liberal-arts sampling, the survey of fields of knowledge, and

individual programming, Johnson (16) elaborates on the functional use of problem areas, such as marriage and family life, citizenship, vocational orientation, consumer education, and personal and community health.

In English, the one academic course now generally required, the best examples are proof that the college can meet, as has the high school, the problem of organizing in terms of meaningful units. At the University of Denver, for instance, the basic communications course, while integrating reading, writing, speaking, and listening, is designed to "secure the best possible adjustment of the individual in the complex field of human relations" (4). Such an emphasis has caused one expert in the language arts to claim that the colleges have here surpassed the high school in creative and experimental approaches (12).

At the high-school level, developments in general education are increasingly geared to a concern for problem or topical areas. The most ambitious recent report in the field of secondary-school social studies indicates conclusively the superiority of the problem or topical method of organizing learning experiences, as compared with the chronological, and also emphasizes and exemplifies the values arising from unit teaching (21).

To return to English, the Commission on the English Curriculum (2), as sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English, is currently working through its material into ten



major areas, among which are mental and emotional stability; social sensitivity and effective participation in group life; faith in, and allegiance to, the basic values of a democratic society; and vocational efficiency.

If the junior college is to make the most of a beginning definition of the life-needs of youth, with all that such concern reflects in social purpose, then it must find ways of organizing its courses that are more effective for the majority of learners than are the all-too-frequent survey types found in senior-college programs.

3. *Sound development in the general-education curriculum is based on the use of multiple-learning materials and experiences.*

Both Eurich (6) and Tead (28) mark the need of a variety of experiences in general-education programs for the junior college if the attempt to build common learnings from such diverse interests and capacities is to succeed. Here the high school, with its recently accelerated interest in the use of audio-visual materials, should have a good deal to offer the junior college in the organization of services, as well as in the use of the materials. While the understanding of their value as group experience, rather than simply as aids to making the textbook clearer, is still being explored (1), the phenomenal growth of audio-visual devices remains as perhaps the chief lesson the wartime training program had for American education. Since many

of the wartime ventures were conducted on college campuses, there is already a reservoir of experience to be tapped in providing a well-rounded supply of learning resources for general education.

Community resources also should not be overlooked. The field study is particularly well suited for use by the more flexibly scheduled college classes. Another valuable source lies in the use of community speakers and consultants. When these persons are needed for presentation of issues or problems, they may consent to have their talks recorded at the time of first delivery for further use by other sessions or courses (7).

Also the high school's experience in providing reading materials at varied levels of difficulty should be more thoroughly studied by the junior college. Merely to provide a multiplicity of reading materials is, of course, not enough. Sources that range from the simplest acceptable books and pamphlets to the most challenging must appear on the bibliography and in the syllabus. The reading skills of students do not change overnight when they go from high school to junior college, although the attitude of teachers might sometimes lead one to think so (22). Nor does the remedial approach alone, now respectably established in both high school and college, hold the answer. Despite effective remediation for some students, the range of reading abilities will continue if the range of students does. The essential prob-

lem is to provide for differing capacities.

4. *Sound general education is based on a concern for, and evaluation of, individual growth.*

This final principle of sound curriculum development arises naturally from the fulfilment of the other three. If the life-needs of the age group are being met through a problem or topical organization based on the use of a wide variety of learning materials and experiences, then the program will be so constructed that the individual will have the incentive and opportunity to learn in terms of his own interests and capacity. Evaluation necessarily must follow upon this same approach.

Part of the program rests upon knowing more about the individual. Test data, whether collected as part of the induction procedure or gained directly through the classrooms of general-education courses, is essential (10). Information concerning the student's health status and family or financial problems should be available to the teacher who is expecting to plan for the individual through the group.

Here the developing guidance programs of secondary schools have much to offer the junior college in defining the nature of necessary information and in providing devices that have been found useful for collecting and organizing the data for use. Articulation with the rapidly improving counseling programs of high schools served by the college may also save time by

making available previous information.

Complementary to knowing enough about the student to guide him into profitable learning experiences is knowing enough about his growth to be able to evaluate it. Certainly, complete dependence on the results of two or three group examinations will be inadequate if teachers intend to handle each person as an individual. Through conference, through the collection of examples of the student's reactions and self-evaluation, through the observation of the student as a developing person, through the use of devices for getting at growth in critical insight and skills of judgment (11, 26)—through such a program the teacher will find himself concerned with what every youth gains, not merely with what the total group achieves.

#### BRIDGING THE GAP

These, then, are some of the principles on which the development of general education in the junior college, as part of the secondary-school system, may well be based. The lessons that the high school has had to learn—and is still learning—the hard way can scarcely be borrowed wholesale, however; some process of gradual testing of these principles needs to be considered. What follows, in conclusion, is a suggestion for taking steps as rapidly as possible to bridge the gap between what we know needs to be done and our completion of the task.

One way to begin, and a place where some colleges believe we should stop, is to increase by areas the number of hours required. From physical education and English, a junior college could move to the requirement of a certain number of hours in social studies, science, and literature and the arts. Stopping at this point proves attractive doubtless because it enables the college to provide alternative courses among which the exploring student may find his level of achievement. The college may also, if it chooses, offer highly specialized instruction under the label of general education.

A next step for colleges wishing to achieve an actual program of common learnings might be to organize the general-education courses eventually to be required and to test them in the open market. A course in combined social sciences, centered around live problems, will then have to compete for interest with a variety of other courses in the same department. Given time and ingenuity enough, the instructors in a new course of this kind should be able to profit from, and refine upon, the experiences of adjusting the new intention to the needs of students.

The crucial step comes when the courses thus refined are then required of all students. Assuming that the revision has been conscientious and that there is full understanding of the nature of the learner and his life-needs and that the courses will respond to student participation in their direc-

tion, this step will still be hard to take. Certainly, there may need to be degrees of induction of these new courses. Perhaps one at a time may be introduced. A good many changes come with such requirements, not the least of which is the diminution of some of the elective areas. Not all the adjustment to a program of general education comes from the students in, or the teachers of, the courses. The rest of the faculty is affected fully as much.

Thus, after installation of the courses, something may well be done to insure continuing faculty concern for the effective functioning of the courses. Through advisory committees representing the junior college as a whole, the scope and operation of the courses may be scrutinized to see that the broad purposes, as worked through originally by the faculty, are not threatened by a tendency to narrow down. This advisory committee might also decide to extend its thinking beyond the point reached by the faculty and to report back to the faculty members.

Last of all, the effectiveness of the program needs to be checked by constant attention to what is happening to the student. A running history of retention in general-education courses is a part of this evaluation. This study must be concerned with more than the percentage of failure, although that is part of the picture. What effect is the requirement of additional courses having upon school-leaving? The response to this question needs always to be available for the guidance of those

persons directly responsible for the courses. Another factor in evaluation is the student himself. Through direct reaction within the classroom and through service on advisory committees along with faculty members, students may prove a rich source of contributions for the development of continually more meaningful common experiences in learning.

### RÉSUMÉ

General education does seem to present a dilemma to the junior college, torn as it is between the public's, the high school's, and the senior college's expectations that it will meet its social obligation and the real barriers that have arisen, in part, from the unique nature of the institution as higher education open to all. During the past generation, however, public education in the United States has been faced with a similar problem in its high schools. With a willingness to learn from what the lower reaches of the secondary school have found, the junior college should be able to face up to its obligation without many of the confusions and conflicts that have characterized the growth of common learnings in the high school. The testing of these lessons through a planned gradualism should permit the development of an adequate program with a minimum of faculty and student maladjustment.

The public junior college must accept its responsibility for general education; it can do so far more quickly than did the high school if it will.

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## INTEGRATING BOOKS AND READING WITH ADOLESCENT TASKS

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IN EVERYDAY life the individual learns how to live and how to meet an ever widening circle of people, situations, and experiences. This process involves a continuous pattern of learning and adjusting which has been characterized as achieving developmental tasks. Havighurst explains the term "developmental tasks" as follows:

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks.<sup>1</sup>

Some of the developmental tasks are encountered at a specific stage of growth in the life of the individual; thus, they are characterized as *non-recurrent* tasks. Other tasks are never completely accomplished, but recur again and again, in varying but closely related aspects, throughout a lifetime. These are termed the *recurrent tasks*. Successful adjustment to both types

of tasks, which are interrelated, will determine the healthy and satisfactory growth of the individual in our society.

In the monograph already cited, Havighurst identified the following types of tasks which are known to be important in the development of the adolescent's personality and in the ultimate attainment of his major social and vocational aims:

### TASK 1. Accepting One's Physique and Accepting a Masculine or Feminine Role

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to become proud, or at least tolerant, of one's body; to accept a socially approved masculine or feminine role.

### TASK 2. New Relations with Age Mates of both Sexes

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to learn to look upon girls as women, and boys as men; to become an adult among adults; to learn to work with others for a common purpose, disregarding personal feelings; to learn to lead without dominating.

### TASK 3. Emotional Independence of Parents and Other Adults

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to become free from childish dependence on parents; to develop affection for parents without

<sup>1</sup> Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education*, p. 6. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

dependence upon them; to develop respect for older adults without dependence upon them.

**TASK 4. Achieving Assurance of Economic Independence**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to feel able to make a living, if necessary. [By implication, to be capable of handling money.]

**TASK 5. Selecting and Preparing for an Occupation**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to choose an occupation for which one has the necessary ability; to prepare for this occupation.

**TASK 6. Developing Intellectual Skills and Concepts Necessary for Civic Competence.**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to develop concepts of law, government, economics, geography, human nature, and social institutions which fit the modern world; to develop language skills and reasoning ability necessary for dealing effectively with the problems of a modern democracy.

**TASK 7. Desiring and Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to participate as a responsible adult in the life of the community, region, and nation; to take account of the values of society in one's personal behavior.

**TASK 8. Preparing for Marriage and Family Life**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to develop a positive attitude toward family life and having children; and (mainly for girls) to get the knowledge necessary for home management and child-rearing.

**TASK 9. Building Conscience Values in Harmony with an Adequate Scientific World Picture**

*Nature of the Task.*—The goal: to form a set of values which are possible of realization; to develop a conscious purpose of

realizing these values; to define man's place in the physical world and in relation to other human beings; to keep one's world-picture and one's values in harmony with each other.

Many experiences of children and youth contribute to the achievement of the developmental tasks. The materials from which people read and learn form one source of the concepts which develop insight.<sup>2</sup> A group of students in adolescent literature, collaborating with the University of Chicago Materials Center,<sup>3</sup> surveyed the materials at the adolescent level and attempted to compile a highly selective but illustrative list of titles, the reading of which might assist youth in the achievement of the crucial adolescent tasks. It should be emphasized that each of these titles is but one example of a kind of literature and that there are many similar, or related, books which may be used as supplementary material. The titles are classified according to the task to which the books are related, and the annotations indi-

<sup>2</sup> Frances Henne, Alice R. Brooks, and Ruth Ersted, *Youth, Communication and Libraries*, chaps. i, iv. Chicago: American Library Association, 1948.

<sup>3</sup> The persons who made this compilation were: Irma Dohrmann, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago; Elizabeth Britt Mayeaux, formerly high-school teacher, Graduate Education Department, University of Chicago; Genevieve Nih, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago; Spencer G. Shaw, Brooklyn Public Library, Brooklyn, New York; Elizabeth Jane Wilson, assistant librarian, Fenger High School, Chicago, Illinois; and Alice R. Brooks, at the time of writing this article, librarian of the Materials Center, University of Chicago.

cate the contributions of the books to the achievement of the tasks. Obviously, a book may serve more than one task.

TASK I. ACCEPTING ONE'S PHYSIQUE AND  
ACCEPTING A MASCULINE OR  
FEMININE ROLE

FACTUAL MATERIAL

CRAMPTON, C. W. *Boy's Book of Strength*. McGraw-Hill, 1936.

A book designed to aid the adolescent in preserving and increasing his physical efficiency through exercise and proper diet. Included in the illustrated text are stories of the accomplishments of prominent athletes.

JACOBS, HELEN HULL. *Gallery of Champions*. A. S. Barnes, 1949.

A former tennis champion writes about fifteen of the greatest women players of her era. Author stresses good sportsmanship (although a few examples of poor sportsmanship are cited), and one senses the bodily fitness and physical grace that go into this game. The overcoming of certain physical handicaps in order to play tennis will interest young people.

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Brief but accurate information in a popular and personalized style. (Note also Riedman's *How Man Discovered His Body* [International, 1947], which is a history of physiology and growth of human knowledge.)

ULLMANN, FRANCES. *Girl Alive!* World, 1947.

Contains advice for the teen-age girl concerning good grooming, manners, dating, and friends. A discussion of relationships with parents is included. The chapters on "Your Changing Body" and "Handling Your Handicaps" are helpful.

BIOGRAPHY AND FICTION

BAKER, MRS. LOUISE. *Out on a Limb*. Whittlesey House, 1946.

Handicapped by the loss of a leg in childhood, the author adjusted to this defect both mentally and physically and discovered that happiness and a useful life can be found by the handicapped. Amusing, entertaining style, without pathos.

BEIM, LORRAINE. *Triumph Clear*. Harcourt, Brace, 1946.

A girl is stricken with poliomyelitis on the eve of going to college. The book deals with her physical progress and mental adjustment. A member of the group who compiled this list had had the disease, and she commended the psychology of the book. The book will not only help handicapped persons but will assist everyone in his relation to the handicapped.

DECKER, DUANE. *Hit and Run*. Mill; Morrow, 1949.

Once this story is begun, young people will read to the end. Chip Fiske, a nimble, peppery outfielder in big league baseball, has to learn to accept his short stature and to control his temper when people refer to his height.

FELSEN, HENRY GREGOR. *Bertie Comes Through, Bertie Takes Care, and Bertie Makes a Break*. Dutton, 1948, 1949.

An overweight hero does not allow this handicap to hurt his interpersonal relations and social activities.

GOODEN, PEGGY. *Clementine*. Dutton, 1946.

Red-haired, freckled-faced Clem Kelley evolves in this humorous tale from man-hater and tomboy to a lovely young lady who is looking forward to marriage with her high-school sweetheart.

LIEFERANT, HENRY and SYLVIA. *Seven Daughters*. Coward-McCann, 1947.

Joe and Sabina had seven daughters, much to farmer Joe's regret, for he wanted a son. Disregarding the desires of his wife and daughters, he compelled the girls to wear "jeans" at all times, even to church. His failure to recognize his daughters' wishes to be girls made life unhappy for all. Only when tragedy struck did Joe realize the error of his ways.

## TASK 2. NEW RELATIONS WITH AGE MATES OF BOTH SEXES

### FACTUAL MATERIAL

BIBBY, CYRIL. *How Life Is Handed On*. Emerson, 1947.

Clear, objective treatment of the whole reproductive process. Includes social and psychological aspects.

BRO, MARGUERITE. *Let's Talk about You*. Doubleday, 1945.

A book which faces the normal problems of a girl in the teens, such as dates, how to be popular, what to do after school, application to school and homework, hobbies, etc.

JONATHAN, H. H. *Guidebook for the Young-Man-about-Town*. Winston, 1948 (new edition).

Could well be subtitled "How To Get Along with Girls." After an irritating chapter in which the author attempts to type women, there is much common sense on various aspects of a boy's social life. McKown (see above) also gives much help on this task.

DETJEN, M. F., and ERVIN, W. *Your High School Days*. McGraw-Hill, 1947.

During the early days of high school, the student has the problem of adjusting to new acquaintances, new schedules, and new relationships. The aim of this book is to help students understand their problems, make the most of opportunities offered, live harmoniously with their friends, and, eventually, choose a suitable mate.

PEPPER, NANCY. *Teen-Age Blues*. Messner, 1948.

Light, satirical verses, interspersed with brief pages of prose, point out some of the human frailties and pitfalls of the teen age and boy-girl relations. Readers will learn as they laugh.

STRAIN, FRANCES BRUCE. *Teen Days: A Book for Boys and Girls*. Appleton-Century, 1946.

Discusses not only such teen-age problems as allowances, entertainment, jobs, and future love and marriage, but also physiology, growth, glandular makeup, hygiene, and sex.

### FICTION

CAVANNA, BETTY. *Paintbox Summer*. Westminster, 1949.

A seventeen-year-old girl, who has been too retiring and overshadowed by her older sister, has the opportunity to develop herself, express herself, and experience the pangs of first love while painting at Peter Hunt's Peasant Village on Cape Cod.

EMERY, ANN. *Senior Year*. Westminster, 1949.

The heroine has permitted herself to become too dependent on her girl friend and the boy who lives down the street. When circumstances separate her from them, she learns to make her way by herself. The problem of "going steady" crops up.

JACKSON, C. PAUL. *Tournament Forward*. Crowell, 1948.

A basketball story in which Neil Vincente learns the hard way that real leadership comes through self-control, consideration of others, and right relationships with one's associates. While emphasis is on the game, there are also some good pictures of faculty-student and age-mate relations.

SATTLEY, HELEN R. *Young Barbarians*. Morrow, 1947.

Teen-agers like social approval, being a member of the "gang," drinking "cokes," and having fun. Barbara Hiatt and her friends, whose roughness and disrespect for other people's

property caused strained relations with "misunderstanding" parents, discover that living is not all fun and irresponsibility. They learn the task of proper social behavior and the helpfulness of parents.

SILLIMAN, LELAND. *The Daredevil*. Winston, 1948.

A boy with a knack for trouble is over daring and fails to get along with his associates. He receives a good lesson in democratic living at camp.

### TASK 3. EMOTIONAL INDEPENDENCE OF PARENTS AND OTHER ADULTS

#### FACTUAL MATERIAL

FOSDICK, HARRY EMERSON. *On Being a Real Person*. Harper, 1943.

In order to become an adult, it is necessary for teen-agers to accept responsibility, to accept themselves for what they are, and to control their emotions. Accomplishment of these things will lead to emotional independence.

PIERCE, W. G. *Youth Comes of Age*. McGraw-Hill, 1948.

Chapters i-iii and x will help particularly with this task.

#### BIOGRAPHY AND FICTION

ASCH, SOHEM. *East River*. Putnam, 1946.

Respect for parental wishes and inability to accede to them sometimes lead to maladjustment. The Davidowsky family with two sons, one a cripple, is torn apart when one son marries a Catholic girl. The orthodox Jewish father's gradual adjustment and, with it, the promise of happiness, make it a heart-warming story. Set in New York early in the 1900's.

CAVANNA, BETTY. *Paintbox Summer* (see entry under Task 2).

FULTON, REED. *Stevodore*. Doubleday, 1948.

To be recognized as an adult in an adult world is important to adolescents. Ben Saunders,

young stevedore, faces this task as he works on a Seattle waterfront, where death, mystery, and intrigue shadow the activities of the workingman. Proving that he is capable of handling himself and his responsibilities demonstrates Ben's growth to manhood.

PEASE, HOWARD. *Bound for Singapore: Being a True and Faithful Account of the Making of an Adventurer*. Doubleday, 1948.

Somewhat biographical. A boy is plunged into the strange adult world of a ship's "black" crew, adjusts to their crudeness and code of values without compromising his own values.

PATON, ALAN. *Cry the Beloved Country: A Story of Comfort in Desolation*. Scribner, 1948.

Too much independence from parental guidance may result in removal from the influences of home. A kindly Zulu priest left his country home to seek news of his son, his sister, and his brother in Johannesburg, South Africa. There the wretched path which his young son had taken was unfolded before the misery-filled eyes of the father, who recognized the loss of his child and the unsuccessful adjustment the boy had made to life.

MEDEARIS, MARY. *Big Doc's Girl*. Lippincott, 1942.

Emotional independence often comes from assuming adult tasks before the anticipated time. In this warm story, the daughter of a "back-country" doctor of Arkansas is successful in attaining emotional independence when her home is made temporarily "motherless" and then is made "fatherless" by the death of the doctor.

SINGMASTER, ELSIE. *Isle of Que*. Longmans, Green, 1948.

A seventeen-year-old youth who lives beside the Susquehanna River in Pennsylvania is left to care for his mother and sister when his brothers go into military service. He overcomes early fears, which seem very real to him, and develops quite naturally the courage to accustom himself to greater responsibility, finding that he not only can accept it but enjoy it, too.



TURNBULL, AGNES. *Bishop's Mantle*. Macmillan, 1947.

When adolescents seek advice on family relationships, they may turn to individuals outside the sphere of their family life. The young minister in this book found that the task of aiding youth formed a major part of his work. He brought love and understanding to the people of his community and wise counsel to youth.

#### TASK 4. ACHIEVING ASSURANCE OF ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE

*The role of books.*—To help develop the habit of rational consumption; to offer budget-planning advice; to teach the value and handling of money.

#### FACTUAL MATERIAL

JORDAN, D. F., and WILLETT, E. F. *Managing Personal Finances: How To Use Money Intelligently*. Prentice-Hall, 1945.

Discusses the value of money, business cycles, buying on credit, investing, and other aspects of finance.

SCHULTZ, HAZEL. *The Young Consumer*. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948.

Designed to orient the high-school youth in his role as both buyer and consumer. Starts with the typical adolescent buying market and progresses to family marketing, housing, money management, etc. Good style, neither too technical nor oversimplified.

There are also a number of pamphlets that will be helpful with this task. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has issued several: for example, *Managing Your Money: Unit for High-School Students*. 1947.

#### FICTION

EMERY, ANN. *Senior Year*. Westminster, 1949.

In addition to the values previously cited for this book, it also contains several good incidents dealing with the task of economic independence; for example, the two older girls at-

tempt to handle their allowances and to supplement them with some money-making ventures. The twelve-year-old brother is also charged with the responsibility of earning money to pay for his Hallowe'en escapade.

COREY, PAUL. *Shad Haul*. Morrow, 1947.

Two high-school boys form a community co-operative for shad-fishing and earn enough money for college.

HARTWELL, NANCY. *Shoestring Theater*. Holt, 1947.

The young people of a community launch a little-theater project in a barn. They have many opportunities to plan, to allot, and to handle money wisely.

#### TASK 5. SELECTING AND PREPARING FOR AN OCCUPATION

*The role of books.*—To give information on vocational opportunities; to specify qualifications, training, and future prospects of specific occupations; to develop ethics and attitudes toward one's career; and to point out the value of an education.

#### BOOKS ON VOCATIONAL ORIENTATION

HAMMAN, MARY, and OTHERS. *The Mademoiselle Handbook*. Whittlesey House, 1946.

Especially good on personal aspects and interpersonal relations.

BROADLEY, C. V. and M. E. *Know Your Real Abilities*. Whittlesey House, 1948.

Considers all areas: factory work, office work, various professional areas, etc.

DETJEN, M. F. and E. W. *Your Plans for the Future*. McGraw-Hill, 1947.

#### COLLECTIONS CENTERING ON ONE VOCATIONAL AREA

KAINZ, L. C., and RILEY, O. L. *Exploring Art*. Harcourt, Brace, 1947.

LEEMING, JOSEPH. *Jobs That Take You Places*. McKay, 1948.

LENT, HENRY B. *I Work on a Newspaper*. Macmillan, 1948.

## BIOGRAPHY

SCOTT, R. L., JR. *Runway to the Sun*. Scribner, 1945.

STODDARD, ANNE (editor). *Topflight: Famous American Women*. Nelson, 1946.

WILLIAMS, BERYL. *Lillian Wald: Angel of Henry Street*. Messner, 1948. (See note under Task 7.)

WILLIAMS, BERYL. *People Are Our Business*. Lippincott, 1947.

## FICTION

CHASE, GENEVIEVE. *Four Young Teachers*. Dodd, 1947.

FORD, EDWARD. *Jeff Roberts, Railroader*. McCrae-Smith, 1948.

TASK 6. DEVELOPING INTELLECTUAL  
SKILLS AND CONCEPTS NECESSARY  
FOR CIVIC COMPETENCE

*The role of books.*—To lay the groundwork and develop information necessary for civic competence; to train the reader in correct and critical interpretation of reading matter; to enable him to use materials and sources of materials intelligently.

## INTELLECTUAL CONCEPTS

All areas of the library collection—general, periodicals, etc.—are germane to the task of developing broad intellectual concepts.

ADAMIC, LOUIS. *Nation of Nations*. Harper, 1945.

ALLEN, DEVERE. *What Europe Thinks about America*. Henry Regnery Co., 1948.

BARUCH, DOROTHY. *Glass House of Prejudice*. Morrow, 1946.

CROUSE, WILLIAM H. *Understanding Science*. Whittlesey House, 1948.

ELTING, MARY, in collaboration with GOSSETT, MARGARET. *We Are the Government*. Doubleday, 1945.

FOSTER, GENEVIEVE. *Augustus Caesar's World: A Story of Ideas and Events from 44 B.C. to 14 A.D.* Scribner, 1947.

GALT, T. F. *How the United Nations Works*. Crowell, 1947.

SHIPPEN, K. B. *Great Heritage*. Viking, 1947. (Note also her *Bright Design*, Viking, 1949.)

## INTELLECTUAL SKILLS

BAILARD, V., and MCKOWN, H. C. *So You Were Elected!* McGraw-Hill, 1946.

BOYD, J. E., and OTHERS. *Books, Libraries and You*. Scribner, 1941.

FLESCHE, RUDOLF. *The Art of Plain Talk*. Harper, 1946.

LEWIS, NORMAN. *How To Read Better and Faster*. Crowell, 1944.

PEABODY, G. F. *How To Speak Effectively*. Wiley, 1943.

Contains material on parliamentary practice, conducting meetings, and introducing speakers.

SCHERF, C. H. *Do Your Own Thinking*. McGraw-Hill, 1948.

WHIPPLE, L. R. *How To Understand Current Events: A Guide to an Appraisal of the News*. Harper, 1941.

Covers also cinema and radio.

TASK 7. DESIRING AND ACHIEVING  
SOCIAL RESPONSIBLE BEHAVIOR

*The role of books.*—Practically all the guidance books cited under previous tasks contain good material on this task. Note especially Fedder, McKown, Strain, and Pierce. Fictional material which presents realistic situations and offers possible solutions to the social problems of youth, and biography which chronicles the adolescent adjustments of ultimately successful people, contain useful information.

GRAY, ELIZABETH JANET. *Sandy*. Viking, 1945.

While spending the summer with her aunt at an exclusive vacation resort, Sandy goes through the experience of acquiring her first job and finds that many complications are involved in adjusting to the work and her new associates. She has to cope with another new experience that summer: she meets a more mature type of male friend than she has ever known before and has feelings of jealousy concerning him.

KJELGAARD, JAMES. *Forest Patrol*. Holiday, 1941.

This account of an exciting year as a substitute ranger in circumstances that call for maturity, courage, and ingenuity proves that a nineteen-year-old boy is capable of handling a mature job.

SINGMASTER, ELSIE. *Isle of Que*. Longmans, Green, 1948.

A seventeen-year-old youth assumes social responsibility through the exigencies of the war and a river flood. (See note under Task 3.)

WHITNEY, PHYLLIS. *Willow Hill*. McKay, 1947.

A high-school girl is confronted with the problem of racial intolerance in the community in which she lives. She makes thoughtful, earnest, and sincere efforts to understand her own feelings about this problem and attempts in an active way to influence others in the community to adopt more democratic attitudes. Her problems are complicated by the fact that her parents do not see eye to eye with her on the problem.

WILLIAMS, BERYL. *Lillian Wald: Angel of Henry Street*. Messner, 1948.

An account of the transition of a young society girl into a fine nurse and ultimately into the founder of the Henry Street Settlement House. Her behavior and mistakes at the beginning of nurse's training are soon forgotten as she becomes a responsible and skilled member of her profession.

#### TASK 8. PREPARING FOR MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIFE

*The role of books.*—Factual information concerning marriage and family life is presented in guidance books for high-school students. Those materials previously cited contain good information. Realistic situations in novels and biography reflect desirable and undesirable family situations and relations, as well as the responsibilities involved in this task.

GILBRETH, F. B., and CAREY, E. H. G. *Cheaper by the Dozen*. Crowell, 1948.

Few modern families become as large as this one or have such efficient parents, but, through the humor of this book, there is much good sense to be absorbed.

BOWMAN, H. A. *Marriage for Moderns*. McGraw-Hill, 1948 (second edition).

Based on a marriage course at Stephens College. Discusses in a sympathetic, objective way the questions young people ask and the problems they face in the choice of a life partner. Although prepared as a textbook, the volume should be useful in discussion groups and for individual reading.

LYON, JESSICA. *For a Whole Lifetime*. Macrae-Smith, 1949.

Here is a surprisingly good junior novel on modern marriage. The theme is the oft-used one of marrying out of one's class, but here the author handles her characters realistically and spins her tale convincingly. The young reader is given much valuable food for thought about marriage, all within the context of an absorbing story.

MOORE, RUTH. *Fire Balloon*. Morrow, 1948.

This book depicts life in a Maine coast fishing town and particularly the life of the Sewell family—old Gram Sarah, her sons, and their wives and children. The characters in this family, their interpersonal relations, the family in the community life form a pattern that is wholesome and worth while for young people to meet in their fiction.

WHITNEY, PHYLLIS. *Ever After*. Houghton Mifflin, 1948.

The problems and misunderstandings of this very young married couple should help the adolescent to develop a more thoughtful and realistic attitude toward marriage. A career-marriage combination is shown to be a serious undertaking for those who have not matured emotionally in many respects.

FORBES, KATHRYN. *Mama's Bank Account*. Harcourt, Brace, 1943.

A series of short stories about a Scandinavian-American family in which "Mama" is the moving spirit. The tender, humorous tones of the book and Mama's selfless devotion to her family are heart-warming and serve to preserve the ideal of the close-knitted family constellation as the center of American life.

#### TASK 9. BUILDING CONSCIOUS VALUES IN HARMONY WITH AN ADEQUATE SCIENTIFIC WORLD PICTURE

*The role of books.*—The realization of this task calls for the expression, exposition, and crystallization of ideas and values in a manner in which teachers are often inadequate. Only in literature, written by clear thinkers with vision, can young people, and adults as well, find the guidance and reinforcement that they need.

AUSLANDER, JOSEPH, and HILL, FRANK ERNEST. *The Winged Horse*, Doubleday, 1927; and *The Winged Horse Anthology*, Doubleday, 1929.

These books will give the adolescent a feeling for the beauty in poetic expression and enable him to see how vital a part it has played in man's life through the ages.

EMERY, ANNE. *Mountain Laurel*. Putnam, 1948.

Laurel faces the problem of caring for her younger brothers and sisters after her mother's death. She gave up her dreams of becoming a nurse but found happiness and security in achieving recognition by weaving as well as her mother had, and she came to appreciate the beauty of the craft.

FITCH, FLORENCE H. *One God: The Ways We Worship Him*. Lothrop, 1944.

With a simply written style, excellent photographic illustrations, and emphasis on the common belief in one God, this book does much toward destroying prejudices and developing understanding between the Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant faiths. True respect is shown for all recognized religion in America. (*Their Search for God*, by the same author, follows the same effective formula for developing an understanding of the religions of the Orient. Ruth Smith's *Tree of Life* [Viking, 1942] is also a distinguished book in the field of religious understanding.)

HILTON, JAMES. *Good-bye, Mr. Chips*. Little, 1934.

The story of a beautiful character, a young man of great sincerity and simplicity who earnestly pursued the profession of educating boys. He marries an understanding girl who measures him in terms of character qualities and who brings much happiness into his life. Mr. Chips was not a huge success in life from a materialistic point of view, but the happiness and comfort he imparts to others caused him to be thought of by his associates as a person of real value. His own growth over the years through the influence of other people is also significant.

KAINZ, LUISE G., and RILEY, O. L. *Exploring Art*. Harcourt, Brace, 1947.

The awareness of art in everyday life is unusually well presented here.

LINDBERGH, CHARLES A. *Of Flight and Life*. Scribner, 1948.

A scientist seeks the qualities of life on which to build our civilization and concludes that they lie in the balanced qualities of spirit, mind, and body of our people.

SPAETH, SIGMUND. *At Home with Music*. Doubleday, 1945.

The radio brings music of all types and caliber into the home today. With great success, Mr. Spaeth attempts in this book to give us values on which to base our appreciation of music.

# THE OPPORTUNITIES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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## INCREASED ENROLMENT

THE time is rapidly coming when practically all young people will take some high-school work and when a greatly increased number will graduate. In 1930, 60 per cent of an age group entered high school and 40 per cent graduated. By 1940, more than 75 per cent of an age group entered high school and 50 per cent graduated. It is expected that, in the near future, practically all of an age group will enter high school and that about 70 per cent will graduate.

These figures give in brief summary the changes which have taken place, and are taking place, in the high school. A few observations may be made of their significance:

1. The high school is no longer a selective institution but is rapidly becoming the "people's school." It is the general expectation that every boy and girl will have access to a high-school education.
2. The bare physical facilities for housing high-school pupils must be rapidly expanded.
3. When the high schools enrol practically all boys and girls of an age group it is to be expected that the pupils will have as wide a range of interests and abilities, social backgrounds and economic levels as will be found in society in general.
4. There must be a re-evaluation of the high-school program. Is the program which was suitable for a select group of pupils suitable for a group which is unselected?

## STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF A HIGH-SCHOOL AGE GROUP

Enough studies have been made to give an approximate estimate of the range of ability and probable later careers of an average age group. An example of these studies is the one by Crane,<sup>1</sup> from which the following data have been taken.

First, we may contrast two groups—the group that graduates from high school and the group that drops out before graduation. Boys drop out with greater frequency than girls. Drop-outs leave school at an average age of 17.4 years with an average grade achievement of 10.4, indicating some retardation. Fifty-five per cent of the drop-outs are rated as poor or very poor in scholarship, while only 10 per cent of the graduates are rated as low. The mean intelligence quotient of the drop-outs is 93; that of the graduates is 107. Only 2 per cent of the drop-outs go to some other school after leaving high school, but 17.6 per cent of the graduates continue their schooling. Sixty-five per cent of the drop-outs and 57 per cent of the graduates go di-

<sup>1</sup> Edmund H. Crane, *Needed Extensions of High School Curriculums in the Rockland, Batavia and Northern Westchester Areas*. Preliminary Study. Albany, N.Y.: Division of Research, State Education Department, 1944 (mimeographed). Pp. 29.



rectly to work after leaving high school. More graduates enter semiprofessional and clerical occupations than do drop-outs. On the other hand, more drop-outs than graduates go into automotive service, domestic service, and labor. Ten per cent of the drop-outs leave their home communities to find work, whereas 24 per cent of the graduates migrate. Both graduates and drop-outs change work frequently after leaving school, but the drop-outs change jobs more frequently.

It is obvious that graduates and nongraduates are not two completely distinct groups. Part of the graduate group is quite distinct from part of the nongraduate group, but there is overlapping between the groups. Further analysis will show that some nongraduates might have graduated if certain handicapping influences had been relieved. On the other hand, if certain courses are designed particularly for nongraduates, it will be found that many graduates will find them more appropriate to their future needs than are the courses offered to them.

A high-school age group can be analyzed in still another way to show the educational and the vocational probabilities of the group. About 25 per cent of an age group may, in the near future, be expected to continue their education beyond high school, leaving about 75 per cent who will be high-school graduates only or who will have taken from one to three years of high-school work. Of the 25 per cent continuing their education beyond high school, 20 per cent will probably take general courses leading to profes-

sional, semiprofessional, administrative, proprietary, or managerial vocations, and the other 5 per cent will take specialized courses leading to skilled and technical vocations.

Of the 75 per cent (drop-outs and graduates) not continuing their education beyond high school, about one-fifth (15 per cent of the age group) will profit by vocational training on the high-school level in some of the skilled trades. The other four-fifths (or 60 per cent of the age group), because of lack of ability or interest, cannot profit by training of a highly skilled or technical nature. They will, on the whole, become unskilled or semiskilled labor workers.

It should be evident that the introduction of vocational courses or the development of a core curriculum does not yield an adequate high-school program to care for the range of pupils. Vocational education on a high level will be profitable to a relatively small number (15 per cent). For most pupils (60 per cent), general training in the basic skills will be more profitable because the kinds of work they will do require little specialization and because this general training will make it possible for them to adjust more quickly when they change jobs. Furthermore, because the pupil is rarely able to anticipate the requirements of the job he will take, he will need on-the-job training on a part-time basis after leaving school.

This large group of adolescents destined for the semiskilled labor market will constitute the majority of the voters. They will marry; they will have families. Many of them will own

homes. A large per cent will continue to live in the community in which they received their education. These facts point out vividly the general character of the high-school program which will be of profit to them. They need courses which will emphasize community life, civic problems, and problems in personal and family living.

The per cents given above are rough estimates based upon census data and upon analyses which have been made of graduates and drop-outs. Even though the per cents in local schools may vary, the figures cited give a picture of the kinds of provisions that need to be made in any adequate high-school program. It must be pointed out, however, that this study has been a statistical analysis of a general age group. The administrator deals with individuals. Students should not be divided, by any authoritarian procedure, into such groupings as have been described. Through counseling, each student should be helped to select the curriculum most suitable for him, and, through appropriate entrance and achievement standards in each course, the student should learn what kinds of work he can do successfully. The analysis given above is for the purpose of indicating the kinds of offering which should be provided by high schools and also to indicate the approximate per cents of an age group for which each kind of offering is intended.

#### THREE APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Challenging as such an overview is, it does not give adequate assistance to those persons who have the responsi-

bility for making concrete suggestions for improvement of the high-school program. There is a great mass of literature filled with suggestions for the improvement of secondary education. These suggestions might be roughly classified under the following three headings:

1. Suggestions for meeting pupil needs. Here, pupil needs are defined as pupil differences in intelligence, interest, background, health, and emotional life.
2. Suggestions for meeting the needs of society. These needs are of a social, economic, and moral nature.
3. Suggestions for improving school organization and administration.

*Individual needs.*—We have today a great mass of literature pointing out individual differences and suggesting ways in which these differences can be handled by the high school. There are also a great many suggestions for leading pupils to their maximum development in all the areas in which they have ability. Underneath these suggestions appears this implication: If we develop all the potentialities of the individual, we shall make him as effective a member of society as he is capable of becoming. Such a philosophy has led to a number of practices which, for lack of a better term, are sometimes called "progressive." Under this thinking, pupils are led to exercise their own initiative at an early age, to make choices, to plan their daily schedules, and to experiment with different kinds of activities. No one will question that it is necessary to consider pupil needs in planning a high-school program, but there may be a question regarding whether an

adequate program can be planned if pupil needs are considered to the exclusion of other needs.

*Needs of society.*—It is a normal expectation that every pupil must ultimately find his place in the world in which he is to live. We often hear a complaint by employers that the product of the high school cannot figure accurately, cannot use good English, is not trustworthy, or does not know how to work. We hear from other persons that a pupil's physical stamina has not been developed, that he has not developed desirable social qualities, that he does not assume responsibility, that he is not well enough informed about national and world problems, that he is not a loyal, patriotic citizen. There is, therefore, a group which has tried to define the program of the school in terms of the needs of society. Probably one of the most significant attempts to offer a program which would meet the needs of society was the introduction of vocational, business, and technical courses. The requirements of these courses were not set in terms of pupil development but in terms of society's requirements.

Various other changes have been suggested, and often carried out, which were designed to help the pupil meet society's needs. Textbook writing which put more emphasis upon application, the introduction of general courses, the use of audio-visual teaching aids, extra-curriculum activities, excursions, participation in community activities, work experience—all have attempted to impress on the student the requirements of the world in

which he will soon be a participant. Frequently it has seemed that these efforts to meet the needs of society have been superimposed upon an already crowded curriculum and have not been made an integral part of the program.

*Improving school administration.*—There seems to be an insistence on the part of school administrators that blueprints be given them on how to organize and administer their schools. They are looking for examples of successful innovations. At educational conventions they tell one another about the innovations they are trying. They occasionally visit each other's schools to see the innovation in operation. They have introduced democratic procedures and guidance facilities. District reorganization has been attempted. Administrators exchange ideas on how to prepare a schedule of classes; on the requirements for classifying pupils for Grades X, XI, or XII; on the requirements for graduation; and on the form of the graduation diploma or certificate. There seems to be implied in this activity the idea that, if the form of the school can be improved thereby, the educational result will be desirable.

Such an approach seems to have had two results. (1) There has been stimulation both to the schools which have had the vision to experiment with a new program and to the schools which have been seeking better programs. (2) Some schools, trying to initiate programs which seem successful in other schools, have met with unsatisfactory and discouraging results.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY TO MEET THE CHALLENGE

In actual practice, these three approaches to improvement of the high-school program are never found as distinct from each other as they have been described here. Meeting pupil needs is not limited to making provision for individual differences but includes helping pupils to take their places in society. Society has need for a wide variety of individuals. Its needs can be met only if the schools turn out individuals with different interests and abilities. The two approaches need to be harmonized and integrated into an effective program of instruction.

The administrator must organize and administer a program which will give the individual satisfaction and stimulate him to his best endeavor, not only in school but after he leaves, and also give to society individuals equipped with the various kinds of competence necessary to carry on the work of society. This is a difficult task for the administrator, but it is the fundamental basis of improvement. The questions to be answered and the problems to be solved are numerous—too numerous to be listed here. However, certain broad areas may be suggested for exploration.

1. Evaluate the present program. Does it make provision for individual differences and the development of necessary individual characteristics? Are the demands of society recognized and met effectively? Are there parts of the program which have no justifi-

cation or which take an undue expenditure of time for the results obtained?

2. Gather suggestions systematically for modifying the program. These suggestions may come from the staff, from literature, or from visiting other schools. Are these suggestions reviewed critically? Is an attempt made to try out and evaluate the more promising of them?

3. Study the needs of the community served by the high school. How does this community differ from other communities? What vocations do high-school pupils enter? To what extent is there opportunity for pupils who have left school to participate in community activities? Do they participate?

4. Study pupil needs. Do pupils develop desirable personal characteristics while in high school? Does the school have records of pupils' abilities and interests? Does the school hold as many pupils in school as it should and for a reasonable length of time? Is the number of students continuing their education beyond high school reasonable?

The challenge is clear. We have more knowledge about pupils and about society than is being used in planning a high-school program.

The challenge is simple. We need a high-school program which will serve the needs of pupils and of society better.

The task is difficult. We may need to depart from traditional practices and launch programs requiring a new philosophy, new practices, and new techniques. The situation demands creativeness; initiative; co-operation on the part of administration, faculty, pupils, and parents; and, finally, a high sense of the social importance of education.

## DESIGN FOR A COMPREHENSIVE EVALUATION PROGRAM

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THE first principle of a sound evaluation program is to start with school objectives rather than course objectives. Whenever one yields on this principle and turns to a few interested teachers in order to get something started, the program is likely to be ineffective. It usually turns out that the objectives of these teachers are almost coextensive with the objectives of the school, and the teachers are especially devoted to objectives on which it is hardest to secure evidence.

Unless appropriate tests, records, and other instruments of evaluation are already available—as is seldom the case—it is a herculean task for a teacher, single-handed, to secure reliable evidence on even one complex objective, and to secure evidence on all his objectives is impossible. I have known teachers to spend an average of two hours a day throughout the year trying to evaluate the major outcomes of their own instruction, and even then the evidence seemed to be spotty and inconclusive. There was no reason for them to knock themselves out in this fashion; the principle of division of labor was thought of a long time ago.

### THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION

In order to put the principle of division of labor into operation, one must first appoint a standing committee on evaluation, with one representative of each main sector of the program: one for all the various arts, one for all the foreign languages, and so on. The responsibilities of this committee are to see to it that some evidence is gathered on as many of the major school objectives as possible; to schedule the collection of this evidence at various times throughout the year and among all departments, in order to distribute the load as evenly as possible; to summarize each type of evidence as it is gathered and to report to the faculty any significant findings, such as the medians of groups with different types of background and training, their standing on national norms, etc.; to see to it that the evidence then gets to the counselors of the pupils to whom it refers and that the counselors file the evidence and keep some simple record which will involve the absolute minimum of paper work but which will indicate that they have looked at the evidence and understood what it meant.



## A LIST OF SCHOOL OBJECTIVES

The first task of the committee on evaluation will be to adopt some list of school objectives. It is easy at this point to waste a year in futile wrangling, largely over the meanings of words. What comes out at the end is seldom different, in any important way, from the objectives of any comparable school—except by inadvertence. There is no reason why the objectives of each school should be unique. A school is not free to announce any objectives it pleases; it must adopt objectives which are necessary for the welfare of its pupils and of our society. In the rather general terms in which such objectives must be stated in order to have any directive power, they do not differ markedly from one school district to another. There is some latitude, to be sure, but this is exercised chiefly in classification and form of statement.

The committee may be helped to adopt a reasonable attitude if it will look upon the tentative set of objectives as a series of empty boxes into which it will later sort the evidence that comes in. The evidence, not the label, will determine the precise meaning of each box. The best time to sharpen and clarify the statement of objectives is after one studies the evidence.

In my own dealings with committees at this stage of their work, I have usually suggested that the list be organized under the following major values, or essential elements of a good life:

1. *Life-maintenance*.—Sheer physical survival on almost any terms, but preferably on a level at which the organism functions efficiently and comfortably. This value includes the necessities (food, clothing, shelter, etc.) and mental and physical health.

2. *A sense of worth or achievement*.—Of amounting to something, of living up to one's picture of one's self, of being recognized and accepted, and of having accomplished something of importance.

3. *Friendly relations with others*.—Relations of mutual respect, affection, courtesy, tolerance, etc.

4. *A free society*.—A self-governing society with the maximum of individual liberty that is compatible with effective co-operation.

5. *Aesthetic experience*.—A sensitive response to beauty in many forms.

6. *Meaning*.—Knowledge and intellectual discipline, integrated in a view of life which gives orientation, direction, and security.

These are not objectives; they are values. They are things that we want to get out of life, things we need in order to be happy. Objectives are the knowledge, adjustment, skills, habits, attitudes, interests, and ideals that conduce to the attainment of these values, both as individuals and as a society. I have never found it difficult to classify all the objectives of concern to teachers in a modern school under these six headings.

## THE PROFILE INDEX

Once the committee on evaluation has adopted a list of school objectives, I recommend that the list be printed, each major division on a separate page, with the objectives in a slender column at the left, and opposite each objective a row of dots across the

page, on which the evidence for any given pupil will be recorded. Each dot may represent five percentile points, and colons may be used to mark the quartiles. A sample page from one list of school objectives, printed in this form, appears in Figure 1.

generally within a few points of one another, while at the two extremes they are spread farther apart. Note also that the space for recording evidence is divided roughly into three columns, labeled "Weak," "Normal," and "Strong." These columns refer to

A FREE SOCIETY	WEAK	NORMAL	STRONG		
	0	25	50	75	100
41. Shows interest in, and concern for, the general welfare	:	:	:	:	:
42. Sees social significance of current happenings	:	:	:	:	:
43. Relates present issues to their historic background	:	:	:	:	:
44. Has consistent and enlightened attitudes toward current social issues	:	:	:	:	:
45. Can discover, evaluate, and present facts relevant to social issues	:	:	:	:	:
46. Can detect propaganda	:	:	:	:	:
47. Knows techniques of social action (e.g., how to get a law passed)	:	:	:	:	:
48. Is willing to devote time, money, and effort to public affairs	:	:	:	:	:
49. Respects law and its agencies	:	:	:	:	:
410. Accepts majority decisions	:	:	:	:	:
411. Values, respects, and defends basic human rights (free speech, etc.)	:	:	:	:	:
412. Knows, accepts, and values the American heritage of self-government	:	:	:	:	:
413. Realizes that a good life can be attained only by organized co-operation (is deeply aware of interdependence)	:	:	:	:	:
414. Is willing to defend country against aggression or tyranny	:	:	:	:	:
415. Knows about, critically evaluates, and supports all promising efforts to prevent war	:	:	:	:	:

FIG. 1.—A sample page of the Profile Index

It should be noted in Figure 1 that the dots in the middle half of the distribution are closer together than the dots in the top and bottom quarters. This arrangement gives a more correct impression of the evidence than if the dots were spaced equally, for scores in the middle half of the distribution are

standing in the bottom quarter, the middle half, or the top quarter of the group tested; or, less exactly, to unfavorable, average, or favorable evidence. Most of the evidence which comes in will probably not warrant any more exact recording than placement in one of these columns, but evi-

dence which yields an exact percentile rank on national or local norms should be recorded as near this point as possible, with a dot under it to indicate that the placement is intended to be exact.

I call this sort of list a "Profile Index": "Profile," because it shows at a glance where a pupil stands with respect to each objective for which the school has collected evidence; and "Index," because it also serves as a guide to the location of each piece of evidence in the pupil's folder. The Profile Index is always to be kept uppermost in each pupil's folder in his counselor's files. As evidence reaches the counselor, it will usually be marked with the number of each school objective to which it refers and with a letter or percentile rank to indicate the degree of attainment of each objective which is revealed. Suppose, now, a counselor finds in his mailbox a biology test (or a report on a biology test) taken by John Smith. It is marked "61S," showing that it refers to Objective 61, knowledge of the natural sciences, and reveals "strength" (standing in the top quarter of the group tested) in this area; also "61IN," showing that it reveals "normal" development (standing in the middle half of the group) in the ability to interpret data. After perusing this evidence, the counselor opens Smith's folder and finds that there are already 35 pieces of evidence in it; that is, the one on top is numbered 35. The new evidence, then, becomes Number 36. It is always to remain in this position in the pupil's folder. The counselor

writes this number on top of the new evidence and then in two places on the Profile Index: opposite Objective 61 in the "Strong" column and opposite Objective 61I in the column labeled "Normal."

At this point the committee on evaluation will probably begin to complain of the amount of paper work that will be involved. In practice, however, if each counselor has to keep track of the data on not more than forty pupils, the amount of time he will spend on paper work will be negligible. On most days he will probably find no evidence at all in his mailbox; only rarely will he find more than three or four pieces. How much time will it take to write down three or four numbers, usually in only one position on the Profile Index, but occasionally in two? In fact, this device cuts down the amount of paper work to the absolute minimum, for it is impossible to write less than one number as the sole record of a piece of evidence. If the counselor cannot pause that single instant to jot down that number before filing the evidence, then it is plain that no record whatever will be kept. The evidence will simply be dumped into folders without passing through the mind of anyone who knows the pupil and feels responsible for keeping in touch with his all-round development. Then, as the folders fill up with unsorted evidence, the task of reading through them and making any sense at all of what they contain will become impossible. In that case they may as well be thrown away.

Consider what the counselor gets in

return for pausing just an instant to jot down a number before filing the evidence. In the first place, it forces him to look at the evidence and understand what it means. The simple busy-work of jotting down the numbers was, in fact, devised chiefly for that purpose. Then, as the Profile Index gradually fills up with numbers, it will show at a glance the aspects of development on which the school has collected evidence for any given pupil and the degree of attainment of each objective which is revealed by the evidence. If the counselor becomes concerned with deficiencies revealed in some area, such as growth in reading, he can instantly locate all the evidence bearing on this objective, for the numbers recorded after it will tell him the serial order of each piece of that evidence in the pupil's folder. The numbers may even reveal trends in development over a period of time, for the higher numbers will naturally refer to later evidence, the lower numbers to earlier. If the higher numbers stand higher in the profile than the lower numbers, they indicate that the pupil has made more than the normal progress of his group.

#### ELIMINATION OF OBJECTIVES

With these arrangements in mind, the committee on evaluation can return to the task of securing evidence on each major aspect of development that the school regards as important. It should not, at this point, eliminate any objective from the Profile Index merely because it can think of no practicable means of securing evidence. If

the objective remains on the list, some inspired teacher may think of a way of detecting growth toward it next week or next year. Even if no one ever finds a way of measuring it, if the school still regards it as important, it should remain on the list to show that the picture of development is incomplete.

Neither should the committee be disturbed by the objection (which is sure to be raised) that some of the objectives in the list are the primary responsibility of other agencies than the school. Even if this objection is true, the school as evaluator may properly look outside the boundaries of its responsibility as teacher. Suppose we assume, for example, that it is the parent's responsibility to develop all those characteristics which make a pupil what we loosely call "a nice person." We all know that some parents do not succeed. If the school has a clear and convincing record of these deficiencies, it can either call them to the attention of the parent, or, if this seems likely to do no good, it may do something to remedy them itself.

#### SURVEY OF AVAILABLE EVIDENCE

In making its plans for the collection of evidence, the committee on evaluation should first make a thorough survey of what evidence the school is already collecting and what additional evidence the teachers could easily collect in the normal course of their work. Each teacher should be given a copy of the Profile Index and be asked to record the numbers of any objectives on which he collects, or could easily collect, evidence, the na-

ture of the evidence, and the approximate dates on which it is gathered or could be gathered. The committee should assemble this information on an extended Profile Index with long lines opposite each objective and columns for the months of the school year. Actual or proposed evidence can then be entered on this chart by writing in the name of the department which is to collect it, followed by a symbol to indicate the nature of the evidence, opposite the objective to which it refers and under the month in which it is to be collected.

As it studies the chart, the committee may find that several departments are collecting evidence on the same objective, when it could be collected more conveniently by one; that some of the available or proposed evidence is worthless; that some departments are attempting too much and others too little; and that there are hectic periods during the year when everyone is giving and scoring examinations, followed by slack periods of unexamined living. As it discovers these weaknesses in the program, the committee should discuss them either with the departments concerned or with the faculty as a whole and make recommendations for improvement.

#### NEW EVIDENCE

The committee should next turn its attention to the blank spaces in the chart and consider where the picture is most flagrantly incomplete. Whole divisions of objectives may not be represented at all. It would be desirable to

begin collecting evidence on one or two objectives in these neglected areas in order to give them at least token recognition. If possible, the new evidence should be collected by departments and at times of year which are not already overburdened. New evidence should not be added too rapidly. Outside of standardized tests, which are fairly easy to administer, score, and interpret, probably no department should assume responsibility for collecting more than one new type of evidence each year. Remember that not only do the teachers in any one department have to learn how to secure the evidence, to study its reliability and validity, and to draw general conclusions from it, but teachers in all other departments, in their capacity as counselors, will have to learn what the new evidence means and how to use it in their counseling.

#### ADMINISTERING THE PROGRAM

After the committee has drawn up a tentative plan for the collection of evidence during the year, it should submit the plan to the faculty for discussion and acceptance. Acceptance will imply that the evidence assigned to each department will be collected without fail and turned over to the committee on evaluation on the date indicated. About one month before this date, the committee should send a reminder to the department and, before it is printed, should usually ask to see a copy of the instrument which is to be used. Often the committee will be able to suggest improvements. At



other times it may suggest that the test itself not be sent out to counselors, for it would be unwise to clog the files with routine classroom tests on knowledge of subject matter. Instead, the committee may suggest that some simple record be kept of the results of a whole series of these tests and that only the record be turned over to counselors at the end.

After each department has collected the evidence assigned to it, and is through with the data for its own purposes, it should turn the evidence over to the committee on evaluation, each piece marked with the number of the school objective to which it refers and either a letter or a percentile rank to indicate the degree of attainment. If there are a large number of subscores, only the scores which indicate the general tenor of the evidence should be used for this purpose. The department may also report medians or averages, distributions of the various groups tested, and any general conclusions it has been able to draw from the evidence. In some cases it may leave this task to the committee on evaluation. The member of the committee who is most closely associated with this department should look over the evidence and the report to see whether any serious errors have been made and whether any further implications occur to him. Then the evidence should be turned over to the office clerk, who will sort it into the mailboxes of the counselors of the pupils concerned. It will facilitate this process if it is routine procedure for pupils to write not

only their own names, but also the names of their counselors, on each test or other instrument that they take. All significant findings should be reported to the faculty and discussed in a faculty meeting. If, for example, a test of various intellectual skills shows no progress from the ninth to the twelfth grades (if the medians for all four grades are approximately the same), that is a significant finding. The faculty should consider seriously whether the test is valid, whether they still accept the objective, whether they have done anything about it; and, if so, how their materials or procedures could be improved.

The faculty should not get the idea that the evaluation program is to be confined to objective tests. A great deal of perfectly valid evidence may be secured from essay examinations, term papers, and the like, if they are carefully graded. The faculty should not turn to rating scales, however, except as a last resort. The aim of the program is to collect evidence of development, and merely asking teachers to judge the state of a pupil's development, in the absence of any definite evidence, is to run away from the problem. If rating scales must be used, however, each pupil should be rated independently by at least two teachers who are in a position to observe the behavior in question, and the correlation between the sets of ratings should be computed, in order to secure a measure of reliability. Above all, the Profile Index itself should never be used as a rating scale. At no time

should a counselor record on it his subjective judgment of any aspect of a pupil's development. It is to be used exclusively as a record and summary of the evidence filed in a pupil's folder.

#### THE COUNSELING PROGRAM

If the school's counseling program is not already in good order, the comprehensive evaluation program will necessitate changes. Any setup in which each counselor, adviser, or home-room teacher is responsible for keeping in touch with the all-round development of not more than forty pupils will do, but above this point keeping track of the data may prove burdensome. I prefer the system, used in many schools, of allowing pupils about one month at the beginning of each year to get acquainted with their teachers for the year; then asking them to indicate their first and second choices among these teachers as their counselor. By utilizing a few second choices, one can distribute the load about as evenly as it ought to be distributed.

#### EFFECTS OF EVALUATION

Although the primary aim of the comprehensive evaluation program is to find out how pupils are coming along in the development of the

knowledge, adjustment, skills, habits, attitudes, interests, and ideals which are necessary for individual and social welfare and to improve either individual performance or the school program wherever deficiencies are revealed, an incidental outcome of great value is professional stimulation. Even the less able teachers tend to come to life when they engage in a serious study of the development of their pupils and when they regularly receive information from every other department in the school on various aspects of the development of the pupils they counsel. This experience is so valuable for teachers that I should not like to exclude any teacher from counseling, and thereby from participation in the program, on the ground that he is not as yet well qualified. Taking part in such a program as this is one of the surest means of becoming qualified. Participation in the program also tends to unify the school, to foster a common concern for the broader and more important outcomes of education and a disposition to work directly toward them, rather than trusting the usual subjects to work, once they are swallowed, like a pill. A common concentration on school objectives, rather than separate course objectives, will multiply the educational effect.

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## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

PAUL W. TERRY

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AN APPRAISAL of current literature in the extra-curriculum field reveals concern with evaluation activities. Several excellent articles on evaluation have been published during the past year. Other articles consider such pertinent questions as, "Why Students Join Clubs." Still others review the history of the activity program and its incorporation into the curriculum.

There is continuing interest in clubs dealing with the subject fields, particularly science clubs and their contribution to increased understanding of our modern world. International-relations clubs are increasingly important in the modern secondary school, along with novelties like a square-dance club.

A review of the literature indicates continuing concern with the financial and administrative aspects of the activity program. There is a growing

tendency to democratize all possible areas of student life, typified by such discussions as "Should the School Press Be Free?" and a report of a student-council project for conducting the school through representative committees. Improving intergroup relations is the goal of many faculty-sponsored organizations. An interesting note is the discussion of the public-relations values of extra-curriculum activities.

359. ADUBATO, LENORE, and FRIEDMAN, IRVING. "Why Students Join Clubs," *School Activities*, XXI (September, 1949), 21-22.

Club members' reasons for their club choices are quoted and studied in an effort to evaluate and reorganize present clubs and to stimulate membership in the program of school activities.

360. BAILARD, VIRGINIA. "Techniques for Sponsoring a Club," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, XIII (October, 1949), 8-16.

How a club sponsor can take full advantage of the opportunity that club work presents for personal growth and service is the thesis of this article. The author describes methods which can be used to stimulate

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 648 (Funk), Item 649 (Hanson), and Item 652 (Thompson) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1949, number of the *School Review*.

club activities, to learn more about the group, and to insure success in reaching the objectives of the club.

361. *Career Conference: Suggestions for Nebraska Schools*. Prepared by DORIS MCGAFFEY. Edited by RALPH C. BEDELL. Nebraska Guidance Bulletins, No. 2. Lincoln, Nebraska: State Department of Vocational Education, 1949. Pp. viii+40.  
Reports best practices observed in organizing and conducting career conferences in the high schools of Nebraska.
362. COLEBANK, GEORGE H. "Students Give Faculty a Vacation," *School Activities*, XX (March, 1949), 217-18.  
Reports a student-council project for conducting the school through representative committees. Stresses the value of using daily life situations as the best means of educating the students.
363. DAVIDSON, ROBERT C. "Let Your Stamp Club Specialize," *Sierra Educational News*, XLV (October, 1949), 15, 32.  
An experienced stamp collector and club organizer presents the methods he has used to stimulate interesting stamp-club activities in a high school. Describes several forms of specialized stamp collections.
364. "Dramatics in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (December, 1949), 1-182.  
Describes the scope of the dramatic arts in secondary education. Places particular emphasis on instructional aids, teacher qualifications, and methods which can be used in developing an effective program. Considers the most common financial and stage-management problems and offers a large list of dramatic-arts books which are helpful in building a drama library.
365. FEDDER, RUTH. *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xx+468.  
Provides detailed descriptions of group experiences in home-room and club activities, explains the purposes of these activities, and evaluates the experiences in terms of observable changes in learning groups.
366. FOSTER, CATHERINE, and LANGERMAN, ROLLAND. "Physical Education on the Air," *School Activities*, XXI (November, 1949), 98-100.  
Presents a radio script for a fifteen-minute broadcast. The general procedure illustrated could easily be adopted for similar extra-curriculum activities.
367. FRANCK, GUY P. "Enriched Teaching through Science Club Activities," *School Activities*, XX (May, 1949), 280-81.  
Discusses the values of organizing a science club, the role of the adviser, and a method of organization. Gives the address of a national organization and lists other sources where valuable materials may be obtained.
368. GARDIOL, YVONNE A. "An Adventure in International Relations," *NEA Journal*, XXXVIII (September, 1949), 425.  
Presents a brief description of the monthly activities of an international-relations club whose members became interested in world problems.
369. GROUSE, HELENE B. "Clubs Are In," *Social Education*, XIII (March, 1949), 123-24, 128.  
Describes the operation of a democratic club plan, suggested by Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools of the American Council on Education, among junior high school girls. Presents one answer to the sorority problem which exists in many schools.
370. *The High-School Student and His G.O.: A Resource Unit for Orientation to Student Participation in School Government*. Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1949. Pp. viii+78.

Presents a report developed by a committee of the General Organization Faculty Advisors Association, consisting of representatives of both the academic and the vocational high schools of New York City. Explains the plans and purposes of the students' general organization and furnishes illustrations of citizenship-training opportunities through student government.

371. HORN, GUNNAR. "Public Relations through the School Newspaper," *School Activities*, XXI (November, 1949), 83-84.

Illustrates the process through which a student newspaper can serve as one of the school's best public-relations mediums. Shows the value of keeping students, teachers, and parents informed about school activities.

372. HUFFMAN, HARRY. "The Extraclass Activities Contribute to the Students' Total Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (November, 1949), 71-79.

Enumerates those extra-curriculum activities which contribute most to the program of the business-department objectives. Defends the thesis that a well-organized student group can benefit from participation in business activities which are concerned with school financial problems.

373. KLINGE, PAUL. "Extracurricular Troubles? Try a Business Manager," *Clearing House*, XXIV (November, 1949), 131-33.

Explains the value of assigning to one staff member the business functions associated with the whole school's extra-curriculum events, which may well include accounting, ticket sales, tax forms, financial reports, and general program coordination.

374. KLOTZ, CELIA. "Mathematics Clubs for High Schools," *School Activities*, XXI (October, 1949), 59-61.

Outlines groups of activities for a mathematics-club meeting twice a month.

375. LIEBERMAN, J. BEN. "Should the School Press Be Free?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (October, 1949), 340-46.

An excellent presentation of the case for freedom of the press on the school level. The author outlines broad principles of control which afford safeguards to the school and which allow for adequate expression by the student body in the school newspaper.

376. LYNCH, JAMES M., JR. "Commuters Don't Miss a Thing," *School Activities*, XX (March, 1949), 223, 239.

Presents a plan for a well-rounded program designed to meet the extra-curriculum needs of the commuting students.

377. McMAHILL, D. R. "Businesslike Programming Essentials," *American School Board Journal*, CXVIII (June, 1949), 32, 80.

Advocates the establishment of a master-calendar at the beginning of the school year to eliminate conflicts between community- and school-sponsored activities. Regards the master-calendar as a continuing device rather than a project to be completed at any specific time of the year.

378. MEYER, AUDREY. "Square Dance Club," *School Activities*, XX (May, 1949), 285-87.

Describes a square-dance club that grew from a few interested students to an active organization of many members. Interested adults caught the idea and formed a similar group. The educational objectives of the program and the worth-while experiences gained from the organization are described.

379. MEYER, WILLIAM G. "Assemblies or Concentration Camps?" *Clearing House*, XXIV (September, 1949), 43-44.

Contends that assemblies may be made inspiring and educational when they provide for more pupil participation. The arts become respected when represented



- in planned assembly activities. Describes how exchange visits are made with other schools.
380. MILLER, PAUL S. "The Junior High School Program of Activities in Action," *High School Journal*, XXXII (November-December, 1949), 243-45. Presents an unusually well-organized approach to the problem of planning for an activities program. Gives principles of organization and administration and major types of club activities which have been sponsored over a twenty-year period.
381. "New Pay Schedule for Extracurricular Activities," *American School Board Journal*, CXVII (December, 1948), 32. A short note which may be of interest to schools concerned with pay for extracurriculum activities. Lists a schedule of compensation for Minneapolis school-activity sponsors.
382. NORD, GERALD E. "Junior High School Clubs," *Journal of Education*, CXXXII (March, 1949), 74-75. Defends the club program in modern education. Lists functioning activities in the junior high school and places special emphasis on the singing club.
383. O'BRIEN, WILLIAM J. "When Students 'Take Hold,'" *NEA Journal*, XXXVIII (May, 1949), 347. Describes a student-led publicity campaign which covered an entire community and led to the successful production of the play, *Our Town*.
384. PATTERSON, MARGARET E. "Clubwork Makes Science Fun," *Science News Letter*, LVI (September 17, 1949), 186-88. Discusses methods by which a science club may serve young people who have little desire to be professional scientists. Cites activities of many clubs affiliated with the Science Clubs of America to show how the club may also serve as a proving ground for students desiring exploratory vocational experiences in science activities.
385. RIEDER, DOROTHY. "Work between the Covers of a Yearbook," *School Activities*, XXI (October, 1949), 49-50. Outlines a plan used to obtain interested staff members, to arrange schedules, and to organize material for the yearbook.
386. ROE, THELMA. "Recreational Program of the Olive Hill School," *Kentucky School Journal*, XXVIII (October, 1949), 14-15. Pictures a recreational program that offers to adults and children opportunities to participate in sports, social activities, library, and musical organizations.
387. SHANNON, J. R. "An Old-fashioned Appraisal of Activities," *School Activities*, XX (April, 1949), 243-44, 262. Reviews the stages of progress that school activities passed through in becoming a part of the curriculum. Defends extra-curriculum activities on the criteria of the Seven Cardinal Principles.
388. SHANNON, J. R. "School Activities and Personality Development," *School Activities*, XX (May, 1949), 275-77. Defends extra-curriculum activities on the grounds that they, more than routine class activities, mold wholesome and attractive personalities. Reviews the results of five research studies conducted by the author which support his thesis.
389. SPEARS, HAROLD, and LAWSHE, C. H. *High-School Journalism*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1949. Pp. xii+436. Deals with problems involved in publishing the school paper and provides guidance for student development in respect to group loyalty, self-direction, and leadership.
390. STOUT, MINARD W. "What Is Effective Administration of Pupil Activity Finances?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 292-300. Recommends methods which will help to insure adequate budgetary practices in

activity finances. Deals specifically with the theory, the needs, the functions to be considered, and the steps that a school must take in formulating an annual budget.

391. TROUT, JOHN M., JR. "Debating for Everyone," *English Journal*, XXXVIII (November, 1949), 506-11.

Describes the various procedures used in one school to promote civic effectiveness through the school debating club. Outlines sets of practices and guiding principles which have been established by the student members to broaden the membership and experience of the debating club.

392. UNRUH, ADOLPH. "Some Criteria for Evaluating a Program of Activities," *School Activities*, XXI (September, 1949), 3-4, 14.

Contains a check list and twelve criteria which may be used to evaluate the school activity program.

393. VAN POOL, GERALD M. "Student Court vs. Student-Council Policy," *Clearing House*, XXIII (March, 1949), 397-400.

Maintains that the policy of having a student council operate a student court is not desirable. Contends that police powers will not create the state of mind desired in a student group.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN, *Guide to Research in Educational History*. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1949. Pp. x+220.

One provocative definition of education—ultimately traceable to Socrates perhaps—is that it is the process by which the individual's area of *conscious* ignorance is increased. If so, then W. W. Brickman's *Guide to Research in Educational History* is one of the most educative books of the year. Many educators, after reading it, would know less educational history than they now think they know, though what they still thought they knew would have been submitted to critical reflection. Professor Brickman reminds us that the work of the historian of education must meet as severe tests as that of other historians and that mere competence in some other areas of education does not necessarily qualify one for writing on educational history, even on that of his own specialty. However, Professor Brickman is not alarmed by the possible decimation of what sometimes passes for educational history; he would be willing gladly to sacrifice quantity for quality. He holds:

The renaissance in the history of education is long overdue. Greater attention to the dual role of educational history [as "content course" and as "professional study"], with suitable stress on the scientific and logical aspects of the study of its problems, will go a long way toward emancipating it from its deserved reputation as a repository of dull and useless facts [p. 215].

In his *Guide*, Professor Brickman is addressing himself most directly, of course, to students who are now preparing for the teaching profession or to teachers who are

doing advanced study. He treats the major topics familiar to students of historical method—the search for sources, especially for primary sources; aids and auxiliaries to the study and writing of history; external and internal criticism; determination and interpretation of the facts—and shows how these activities have been applied, properly and improperly, in the writing of educational history. Like most such works, higher standards are set forth than even good historians consistently practice, and rightly so. Some rather sketchy chapters on note-taking, documentation, presentation, and evaluation of the research report complete the work.

Anyone who writes on educational history will find in this work warnings against common, almost natural, errors—against claiming primacy beyond proof; against leaps in logic and beyond evidence in asserting the influence of a man's thought or of institutions upon others; and, most important of all, perhaps, against the extremely common evaluation of past educational thinkers and institutions solely in terms of their failure to conform to the contemporary fashions of educational thought. On this last error the author comments feelingly:

It seems that almost everyone who writes about modern education feels the moral obligation of setting up a straw man labeled the traditional school and then felling him with knockout blows. Rarely do these critics give a representative description of the old school; it apparently suits their purposes better to select its worse characteristics and to compare them with the best of the current period. . . . The reverse procedure is similarly true. Opponents of Progressive education frequently glorify the old school and berate the new. The fact of the matter is that

careful, unprejudiced research will probably reveal both good and bad forms of education, whether of the traditional or of the Progressive type [pp. 174-75].

For many busy educators the most valuable feature of Professor Brickman's book may be the annotated bibliography embedded in several of his chapters. As usual, a few works are omitted which seem to the reviewer more significant than their "opposite numbers" which are included, but, in general, the bibliographical items represent the best of their kind.

In a future edition of this work Professor Brickman might well address a short chapter to those persons who have charge of educational institutions—especially to those who have exerted some influence upon educational thought and practice generally—on the importance of the preservation and proper arrangement of unique primary source materials which every such institution has for its own history. Search in dark and dirty attics is sometimes very rewarding to the historian, but it should not be necessary to conduct such a quest in an educational institution. That such search is sometimes unavoidable is evidence of the low regard for educational history which is found even among educators. In such a chapter the best practices of librarians and archivists in preserving and making accessible such materials should be set forth.

It has long been the reviewer's opinion that much of the basic material in this book, though not its special applications to educational history, should be a part of general education: implicitly in the early years of history-teaching, explicitly somewhere in the upper high-school or lower college years. Few educational authorities seem to share this view. Until they do, and act upon it, students of education will need to be taught elementary principles of criticism if they are to be prepared intelligently to read educational history and, eventually, perhaps, to teach and to write it. The general requirement of enough work in the history of education, so

taught as to include the serious consideration of its methodological basis, seems an obvious necessity and one the achievement of which is now easily possible.

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RAYMOND G. MCCARTHY and EDGAR M. DOUGLASS, *Alcohol and Social Responsibility: A New Educational Approach*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., and Yale Plan Clinic, 1949. Pp. xvi+304. \$3.50.

Raymond G. McCarthy, the executive director of the Yale Plan Clinic, and Edgar M. Douglass, the assistant superintendent of schools, Montgomery County, Maryland, have collaborated in a most valuable study of alcohol and social responsibility. It is the authors' thesis that, unless educators assume the initiative in developing programs of instruction about alcohol, they will be presented with ready-made programs, accompanied by legislative directives for their administration. The educator's responsibility is attested by the fact that all state legislatures have approved legislation requiring instruction in the schools concerning the effects of alcohol. Numerous pressure groups are active in attempting to secure the co-operation of the public schools in what is broadly referred to as "alcohol education." School boards and school administrators are feeling, or will feel shortly, the impacts of these requests for the school "to do something about alcohol education." The authors rightly contend that fifty years of teaching about the physiology of alcohol in our schools has not produced the anticipated results.

Worthy social movements usually attract a fair share of fanatics who seem to think that the public schools can cure all the evils of society. Alcohol-education groups are no exception to this generalization. School administrators and teachers will find the material contained in *Alcohol and Social Responsibility*

ity most helpful in defining the limits of the school's responsibility for alcohol education.

McCarthy and Douglass warn that no subject area in the school program is extensive enough to warrant assigning to it exclusively the study about alcohol. Schools cannot expect to meet their responsibility for alcohol education simply by adding another course to an already overcrowded curriculum. All teachers can make an effective contribution.

Educators will do well to read first Part II, "An Approach through Education." This section includes chapters on the following topics: the responsibility of educators for alcohol education, the school program for alcohol education, organizing teaching about alcohol, and supplementary teaching aids.

Part I describes the background of contemporary feeling and thinking about alcohol and interprets the social factors which influence community attitudes. In addition to containing chapters on the background of drinking and early attempts at social and political control, this division discusses patterns and attitudes toward alcoholic beverages, as well as the physiological and psychological factors associated with their use. A final chapter in Part I, "Social Responsibility and Alcohol," emphasizes that the social control of the problems associated with alcohol involve parent-child relationships, social pressures, health education in the schools, alcohol legislation, law enforcement, rehabilitation of the alcoholic, and dissemination of information to the public in a manner which will generate recognition and acceptance of social responsibility. In short, the problems of alcohol cannot be dissociated from the problems of society.

The public schools can assist other institutions in working toward a solution of these problems. They can perform this task most effectively if the pressure groups which seek to influence school policies will support higher salaries for teachers, high standards for appointments to teaching positions, functional school buildings, and adequate teach-

ing supplies. Educators, in turn, have a stake in supporting a program of alcohol education. By aiding in the reduction of the consumption of alcoholic beverages, they may help to divert some of the 8,800,000 dollars expended yearly for alcoholic beverages (1948) to the proper support of our schools.

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EVERETT R. CLINCHY, *Intergroup Relations Centers*. New York: Farrar, Straus & Co. for the Louis J. and Mary E. Horowitz Foundation, Inc., 1949. Pp. x+54. \$1.50.

*Intergroup Relations Centers* by Everett R. Clinchy is a small book—fifty-four pages only—full of the imperative need for research in intergroup relations. Dr. Clinchy, president of the National Conference of Christians and Jews since its founding, has devoted his life to finding ways in which people can "live together creatively in a dynamic peace" (p. vii). He feels that much could be accomplished through the establishment of intergroup relations centers in universities, where representatives from all branches of the social sciences can be called on to bring together research materials, exchange information, and participate in a combined attack on problems in this field.

One of the first research needs in intergroup relations, Clinchy states, is concerned with *spontaneity* and *equilibrium*:

Analogies in natural science help to explain the terms. . . . A living organism . . . takes energy in, distributes it within itself, and then expends it. If it takes in more energy than it ordinarily uses, obviously something has to "happen."

If, however, there are "spontaneous" bursts of energy that have been observed in all living organisms, and that may become either destructive or constructive, the implications for all phases of human relations are vast.



Applications of this theory of spontaneity and equilibrium to intergroup living and to international relations may foreshadow a considerable change in social thinking and statesmanship. The action problem in connection with this hypothesis would be to substitute for the destructive behavior activity that is personally satisfying as well as socially acceptable [pp. 43-44].

The relation between *insecurity* and *tensions* is another area in need of research:

A basic and broad piece of research would study the connections between insecurities inherent in daily life and tensions among individuals and groups. When a difficult situation is ever present, it may engender deep feelings of insecurity within an individual. Such feelings result in further instability and greater and greater tensions.

People with broad, free-floating aggression caused by such insecurities are ready to fasten on prejudice and hates to release their pent-up aggression. . . . Mental illnesses which reflect fears, prejudices and hates absorbed from infancy and ever after, call for individual and cultural studies. . . . If those fears, prejudices and hates were culturally planted, the cultures which "carry" them must be changed [pp. 45-46].

The third problem for observation is the inconsistencies in behavior of people toward members of other groups. Clinchy poses questions such as the following:

To what extent do individuals behave consistently toward members of other social groups? In modern industrial society, are there consistent and unified patterns of prejudice and discrimination? Or is discriminatory behavior highly variable in different situations? How much name-

calling and prejudice are the result of group differences and how much simply aggression arising from the frustration caused by a myriad of other difficulties? These are research questions with profound implications for theory and practice [pp. 48-49].

The author lists three operating functions of a university intergroup relations center: (1) research related to real situations in a community; (2) the training of personnel in skills in intergroup relations to meet the increasing needs in this field; and (3) use of the center as a community clinic where the center could be the medium through which factories, labor unions, neighborhood groups, and schools obtain the latest and best in information and techniques in working with group problems.

Clinchy suggests a multiple approach to current problems in intergroup relations and states that no fixed concept of any single intergroup relations center exists. Several universities—Miami University, Teachers College of Columbia University, New York University, Western Reserve University, Wayne University, and the University of Chicago—are experimenting with the ideas about which Dr. Clinchy writes.

Co-ordinated effort on the part of programs already in progress, as well as new beginnings, would aid greatly in the much-needed know-how for handling problems of group relations.

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